The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 8, 1900.

The Week.

The firm of Destiny & Duty has been dissolved, through the retirement of the junior partner. This firm was organized at the White House, on the outbreak of the Spanish war in 1898, by the McKinley-Hanna Syndicate, with the President as silent partner. Duty was taken in at the latter's suggestion, on account of its high standing with the religious public, although Hanna always insisted that there was no need of "pandering to the better element." The firm did a large and lucrative business from the start, the orders from spread-eagle orators often taxing the full capacity of its works. The dissolution is due to the officiousness of the junior partner, through whose forwardness the President was induced to insert the following passage in his message to Congress last December:

> "Our plain Duty is to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico, and give her products free access to our markets."

This disgusted a large number of Republican Senators and Representatives so much that they threatened not only to withdraw their own patronage, but also to institute a boycott against the firm among their constituents unless Duty should be got out of the firm at once. Through the kind offices of Mark Hanna, the withdrawal has been amicably arranged. The terms of settlement are private, but it is known that business will be carried on at the White House as before. It is also given out that the sole authority to wave the Flag, and the copyright upon Loyalty, which constituted the original stock in trade of the firm, are retained by Destiny.

The text of the tariff bill for Porto Rico agreed upon by the Republican members of the Ways and Means Committee is much worse than any previous outgiving had made it, since it extends to that island our tariff duties as regards all imports from foreign countries, but does not allow free trade with us. It hands over the inhabitants of Porto Rico to the tender mercies of our tariff-protected Trusts, and then imposes a protective tariff on their exports to the United States. The island is thus put at a disadvantage in trade as compared with Jamaica and all the other West Indies. Jamaica, for example, can buy her manufactured goods from the whole world without any tariff duties whatever, if she chooses, but Porto Rico can buy only after paying Dingley rates. The money actually collected in this way is to be used in defraying the cost of governing the islands; but in cases where the Dingley rates are so high that the goods cannot be imported from Europe, but must be obtained from the United States, the amount collected at the custom-houses will be the smallest part of the tax paid by the consumer. The larger part will be pocketed by the protected classes in the United States, who produce the goods. Thus the poverty-stricken islander will become the victim of a foreign monopoly, and will not have the benefit of the American market. We wonder what the Home Market Club of Boston will think of this treatment. It is exactly what American colonies rebelled against when they threw the tea into Boston harbor. It is taxation without representation. It is the colonial system of the eighteenth century. It makes a laughing-stock of our advocacy of the open door. It is a cool adoption of Imperialism of the Old World type, much worse than that of England, since England scorns to tax her colonies by means of tariff duties or trade monopolies. It seems impossible that such a bill can pass Congress in this age of the world.

The results of the municipal election at San Juan, in Porto Rico, which has just taken place, are very instructive on the question of the political capacity of the people of that island. Under the election laws, it seems, the minority party is entitled to one-third representation in the City Council, which is now composed of ten Republicans and five Federalists. The latter, it is reported, tricked the Republicans in the election by voting on the Republican ticket for inexperienced men, thereby "freezing out" of the Council five of the best Republican candidates. If this does not prove that the Porto Ricans are capable of self-government, according to the standard of our own politicians, what evidence could prove it? With two political parties already formed, having leaders as astute as these Federalists of San Juan, our rulers ought from very sympathy to welcome the Porto Ricans to citizenship. Certainly our fellow-citizens of Kentucky must feel a brotherly yearning toward these people, when they read this item of news:

> "On the 24th the Federals were celebrating their victory at Fajardo, when they met a Republican parade. The collision resulted in a riot, in which one man was killed and six were seriously wounded. Fourteen of the town's best citizens are in jail, charged with murder."

The cries of treason which greeted Senator Pettigrew's efforts to have the recently published Aguinaldo statement embodied in the *Congressional Record* on Wednesday week, are all the more remarkable when contrasted with the spirit in which the attacks of the English Opposition in Parliament have been received. There, in what many of us have been pleased to consider a downtrodden monarchy, the right of free criticism and free speech is as clearly recognized as it was in the days when Fox and Burke expressed their indignation at the policy of subduing the American colonies by force. Just as their utterances inflamed the Americans to a more vigorous resistance to the redcoats, so must the recent English criticisms of the cabinet and its policy encourage the Boers to fresh efforts against the British armies. Yet there is no effort to suppress any one by demagogic cries of treason or by such utterances as marked the discussion in the Senate. Indeed, there could be no more open confession of the weakness of the American cause in the Philippines than the whole debate furnished, and particularly Senator Hawley's statement that his objection to the publication of the document in the Senate's records was that it might "encourage desertions and discourage enlistments" if it found its way into the hands of our soldiers.

The folly of the Republican opposition must be plain when one considers that the Aguinaldo statement has been published by the Springfield (Mass.) *Republican*, not only in its regular issue a few days ago, but also as a broadside, and is now being widely circulated by the Anti-Imperialist League. Beside this circulation, that which would be given by the *Congressional Record* is small indeed. Aguinaldo's statement professes to be the "Authentic Review of the Philippine Revolution," and to have been issued from Tarlak, Philippine Islands, September 23, 1899. It is one of the many documents bearing upon the origin of the present warfare in the islands which the historian of this period must take into account when the responsibility shall be apportioned. Its most important feature is the claim that American officials, and particularly Admiral Dewey, made promises of independence to the Filipinos, and that the Admiral treated Aguinaldo as an ally, received him with military honors, and saluted the Filipino flag. All these allegations are pronounced by the Admiral "absolutely false," except that he did "make use of him [Aguinaldo] and the soldiers to assist me in my operations against the Spaniards." Much more important than the disputed question as to how far American officials encouraged the idea of independence in the Filipino mind is the utter lack of tact in the treatment of Aguinaldo and other leaders of the natives, which has been thoroughly established. Gen. Charles A. Whittier, for instance, who was for a

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time Collector of Customs at Manila, holds that the present war might have been avoided if Aguinaldo had been treated with decency, and he presents reasons for this belief which seem conclusive.

The speech of Senator Caffery, in opposition to the Philippine policy outlined by Senator Beveridge, was a very reasonable and conservative presentation of the view that the Constitution of the United States protects all persons under its jurisdiction. He cited abundant authorities to show that the annexation of the Philippine Islands conferred citizenship on their inhabitants, and that they must be governed by Congress in accordance with the Constitution, or else that Congress must usurp powers of government. Moreover, he contended, the principle that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed ought to apply in the case of inhabited territory ceded to the United States as a war indemnity. Whenever in such territory there was a government, or even a "germ of nationality," he insisted, the United States would have no right to overthrow it. The usual question was asked Mr. Caffery, "What would you do with the Philippines?"—to which he promptly answered, "Let them go." That, he said, would be better for them, and better for us. Such an answer as this is, of course, treated as irrelevant by the Imperialists; but there is no obstacle to letting go, except their determination to hold on. Destiny, we venture to predict, would not interfere if we were to recognize such governments as the Filipinos can organize, and extend the Monroe Doctrine to protect them.

A condition of great tension had been reached in Kentucky before the crime of murder had been added to the combustible matter collected at Frankfort. A thousand armed men had come there from eastern Kentucky, ostensibly to see that justice was done by the Legislature in its decision on the certificates of election for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor awarded by the State Board of Canvassers to the Republican candidates for those offices. Probably these men from the eastern counties really believed that they had a right to overawe the Legislature, or to besiege it with firearms, if the decision should not be in accord with their notions. They come from a region where the services of courts and sheriffs are commonly dispensed with in the administration of justice. They issued an address, giving their ideas of the fundamental principles of liberty, and constituted themselves a fourth department of the State Government. Being armed with Winchester rifles, they were necessarily stronger, for the moment, than the other three departments. It would be very strange if, in a collection of a thousand men possessed of such ideas, there should not be at least one man prepared to take the entire administration of justice into his own hands. Indeed, that is the Kentucky way of deciding important legal questions. A few years ago an assassin waylaid and shot the Chief Justice of the Court of Appeals dead because the latter had decided a case against him. The murderer was tried two or three times, and finally escaped on grounds of insanity, and was confined for a short time in an asylum. In 1895 Mr. Goebel himself, the victim of the crime of January 30, shot and killed the President of a bank in Covington in a public street of that town, in consequence of a quarrel which had its beginning in a political controversy. Mr. Goebel was acquitted by a jury.

Whatever may have been the infractions of justice and decency contemplated by the Legislature, they could not be righted by the threat of turning the legislators out of their seats, *vi et armis*. We have no doubt that the Legislature was perpetrating a fraud on the electors of Kentucky—a kind of fraud, too, which attacks the foundation of free government. The present controversy grew out of the so-called Goebel law, which aims to keep the Governorship of the State in the hands of the party which controls a majority of the Legislature, *i. e.*, in the control of the Democratic party. The Democrats had all this machinery in their own hands, and supposed that they should win by virtue of their control of the election boards. It turned out, however, that these boards did their duty in an impartial and honorable manner. Although Democratic party interests demanded the seating of Goebel in the Governor's chair, they found that the majority of votes had been cast for Taylor, the Republican candidate, and they accordingly awarded him the certificate of election which he now holds. Under the Constitution of the State, however, it rests with the Legislature to say the last word as regards the election of the Governor and the Lieutenant-Governor. Here was one more chance to upset the popular verdict, and it was the evident intention of the Democrats to avail themselves of it when the bullet of an assassin entered into the proceedings.

Upon the death of Goebel his powers, whether more or less, devolved upon Mr. Beckham. The latter has the same title to the office of Lieutenant-Governor that Goebel had to that of Governor. This is indeed irregular, consisting merely of a paper signed by a majority of the members of the General Assembly of the State. The reason why it is not more regular, however, is, that Gov. Taylor prevented the General Assembly from holding its sessions at the State capitol, and adjourned it to London on the ground of an alleged insurrection in Frankfort. On Saturday, Gov. Taylor declared martial law in Frankfort, suspended the writ of habeas corpus, arrested a man named Walker, who tried to serve upon him (Taylor) a writ issued by the county judge, and held him for trial by court-martial. On Sunday Walker was released from arrest. Neither the arrest nor the release has added anything to the dignity of Gov. Taylor. It has rather given him the character of a man of flighty purposes, as indeed some of his other acts had previously done. The Democrats have behaved with more moderation than was expected, and it looks now as though a way would be found out of the difficulty without a resort to force.

Seven Representatives of the Republican party and as many Democrats have reached a unanimous agreement leading to a truce. It is stipulated that Gov Taylor shall not be impeached or proceeded against for treason, usurpation, or contempt of court. In return for this immunity—which includes those who acted under his orders—he is to abstain from interfering with the action of the Legislature, and it is understood that that body is at liberty to pass an act validating its proceedings in deciding the contested elections. It is not clear whether, in case such an act is passed, the submission which the Republican candidates promise will prevent them from testing their claims in court. That would seem an unnecessary concession. But the most important feature of the treaty of peace is the provision that all parties shall unite in an effort to have the election law so modified as to provide for nonpartisan election boards and to insure free and fair elections. If that result can be brought about, it will go far to compensate the State for the distressing scenes which it has witnessed.

The visit of Bryan to New England, and particularly his experience in Boston last week, have furnished convincing evidence that the old financial issue which dominated in the Presidential campaign of 1896, has lost its interest for the public, and that the question which will engage men's minds in the impending national contest is the new one of Imperialism. The most significant fact is not that the last and the next Democratic candidate has paid little attention to silver, and devoted his speeches in the various New England cities chiefly to the situation in our new possessions and the problems growing out of the course pursued by the McKinley Administration. The important thing is, that his hearers—and he has had great audiences—cared little or nothing for discussion of the currency, but

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were deeply interested in everything which Bryan said on the question of Imperialism. For instance, at Montpelier, Vt., on Friday, an audience containing many Republicans and Gold Democrats, as well as Bryanites, listened for nearly two hours with eager attention to a speech which said nothing about "16 to 1," and was devoted almost exclusively to the Philippine question.

The propensity of the French to disregard the affairs of all other nations is occasionally a cause for thankfulness. If the French journalists should happen to discover the proceedings by which the Senate of the United States is now endeavoring to ascertain the methods employed by one of its members in securing his election, we fear that they might retort upon us some of the reproaches which we heaped upon them at the time of the Dreyfus trial. Bribery, did we charge? Very well, what do we say now of the use of money in the Montana Legislature? Is it true, our esteemed contemporaries might ask, that Senator Clark paid $568,000 for votes, tendered $200,000 more, and spent enough in addition to bring the sum up to $1,000,000? Was something said of evidences of corruption among French officers? Perhaps the persons who were so painfully shocked at those revelations, or suspicions, will now disclose their feelings when sixteen citizens of Montana and thirty-eight Senators and Representatives of that State have been charged with giving or receiving bribes, and no proceedings have been taken to punish them if they are guilty, or their accusers if the charges are false. There were dramatic episodes in the trial of Dreyfus. Documents of a startling character were produced; but nothing quite so striking as the $30,000 in notes which are now lying before the Senate; $30,000, in the land of the Almighty Dollar, which no one admits ever belonged to him, and no one now ventures to claim! There were witnesses against Dreyfus who were said to have perjured themselves. But there were none who declared that they sold their votes to one man, and then sold their testimony as to their own corruption to his enemy. There were instances in the Dreyfus case where it seemed that witnesses deviated from the truth for the sake of shielding their superior officers, or with the idea of saving the honor of the army. But in the Clark case we have a witness who coolly admits that he found it necessary "to assume a position of falsehood" in order to attain his virtuous ends, and who defines a lie as "an untruth told to a person who has a right to know the truth"; untruth in a good cause being justified.

Sydney Smith's celebrated description of the tax-ridden British citizen, who was finally committed to the grave "to be taxed no more," would not apply in the city of Philadelphia. Nothing is more common in that community than for a man to keep on paying taxes after he is dead and buried. It is provided by law that a citizen may request that his poll-tax be paid, and the Republican city committee has benevolently complied with this request in the case of 30,000 alleged voters. The Receiver of Taxes admits that many of these voters have ceased to exist, if they ever existed, but he maintains that his duty is confined to erasing such names as are written in one handwriting; preventing reform organizations, meanwhile, from inspecting the lists. One of these organizations lately ascertained that in one ward there were hundreds of these disembodied citizens, whose undying patriotism impelled them to keep on paying their poll-taxes and vicariously casting their votes. Exposures of this kind do not seriously disturb the placidity of the mass of the Philadelphians, but some of them manifest impatience at the appropriation of $25,000 by the municipal government for the benefit of the coming Republican convention. Taxpayers not belonging to the Republican party seem inclined to regard this application of public funds to partisan ends as inexpedient; but it must be said that the Republican politicians have done many things worse than this with impunity.

"A situation full of humiliation, and not free from danger." Such was the frank language in which the British Premier last week described the state of things in the British empire upon the assembling of Parliament. The tone of the speeches for the Government was distinctly apologetic. The Duke of Somerset, who moved the address in reply to the Queen's speech in the House of Lords, urged the necessity for reform in the military administration, and said that "hitherto the army seemed to have existed for the benefit of the War Office, and in future the War Office must exist for the benefit of the army." The Premier in turn admitted the deficiencies of the existing system, remarking that "the Treasury had acquired a power which was not to the public benefit." Lord Salisbury also conceded that the Government had lacked the information which it ought to have had as to the importation of arms into the Transvaal and the other preparations of the Boers for war. His only excuse was that other nations spend enormous sums in getting such facts about possible enemies, even the Transvaal Government using £800,000 in a single year, as he had heard on high diplomatic authority, while England has allowed only "small sums" for such purposes, which rendered it impossible for the cabinet to have omniscience. Altogether it was with a most deprecatory air that the Government leaders faced the Opposition.

The attitude of the Opposition showed that the Jingo theory of "standing by the flag" without a murmur of criticism, which the McKinley Administration has tried so hard to enforce in the United States, will not be accepted in Great Britain. Lord Rosebery, believer in advanced imperialism as he has seemed of late years, said frankly that the Premier "made it difficult for the man in the street to support his policy," and insisted that it was "necessary to know what the Government is going to do." In this country the McKinley syndicate have urged that the people ought to be willing to trust everything to the wisdom of the President. In Great Britain the cabinet would like to have the people leave everything to her Majesty's Government. But Lord Rosebery does not hesitate to say that "the country will have to be inspired by a loftier tone and truer patriotism than that shown by the Prime Minister." It is already evident at Washington that the attempt to prevent discussion and criticism, on the ground that they are unpatriotic, will prove equally futile.

At a recent meeting of the Vice-Regal Council of India, it was announced that the expenditure on account of the famine was estimated at between thirty and forty million rupees for the period up to the end of March. Twenty-two million persons were then suffering in British territory, it was computed, and twenty-seven million in the native states. The Viceroy stated that the famine-stricken area had expanded to a degree surpassing the worst fears, and that the country was now face to face with a scarcity of cattle, water, and food terrible in character and intensity. Three and a quarter millions of people were then in receipt of relief, and the Government would do what it could, but, the Viceroy added, ominously: "In 1897, hundreds of thousands of pounds were contributed by England, and the world shared in our sorrow, but now we have to struggle alone, for the whole thoughts of England and of every Englishman in the world are centred in South Africa." A small part of the money already spent on an unnecessary war, and a very small part of what will be spent, would save hundreds of thousands, perhaps millions, of human beings from the miseries of famine. Probably a thousand Hindus could be kept alive for what it costs to kill one Boer. Possibly the starving people of Porto Rico may feel that it would be more humane on our part to divert to their relief a portion of the funds employed in hunting down the Filipinos. But in all wars, the check to public benevolence is one of the elements of "hellishness."

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THE ISTHMIAN CANAL.

The reports that England has consented to modify the Clayton-Bulwer treaty turn out to be correct. The problem which Mr. Blaine rushed at in his eager, blundering way, with those ludicrous arguments and that gross garbling which Lord Granville so cruelly exposed, Secretary Hay appears to have solved satisfactorily. It is one diplomatic triumph more to be added to his achievement in securing the open door in China.

And it is not merely a diplomatic triumph; it is a victory of good sense and civilization. It is a negotiation in which both parties to it see their ideas prevail. The great aim of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, so far as it related to an Isthmian canal, looked to the neutralization and perfect freedom of any waterway that might be cut. Secretary Hay now undertakes to guarantee that this chief end of the treaty shall be safeguarded. The canal is to be as open as the high seas to the commerce of the world. If built under "the exclusive control and management" of the United States, it is yet to favor our ships no more than those of any other nation. In peace or war, merchantmen or battleships are to come and go as freely as through the Suez Canal. No military advantage is to accrue to us by possession of the canal or its termini. We even undertake not to fortify its approaches. All is to be open and equal to all. This represents such a distinct and enlightened advance over what American diplomacy has hitherto contended for that Mr. Hay is to be warmly congratulated upon his success.

We could wish, however, that he were well out of the woods with his new treaty, or convention. That it will meet with bitter and unreasoning opposition is clear. All the consistent foes of England in this country—and they are many and vociferous—will soon begin to rage after their manner. They would attack any agreement with Great Britain, even if it gave us everything we asked for. The only way they can get on happily with England is always to be disagreeing with her. And they will be sure to suspect the existence of some hidden *quid pro quo*. Suppose they find that Secretary Hay has made a slight concession in the matter of the Alaskan boundary; will they not tear him to pieces? If all else fails, they will pounce upon the very concession he has made in respect of the military control of the canal. To waive that will be a deadly sin in their eyes. Is Mr. Hay prepared to deny that the canal must be a part of our coast line? Does he make light of the contention of our Congressional strategists that to allow foreign warships the right to pass through it freely in time of war would be equivalent to national suicide? There will be lively times when all these things come up in the secret session of the Senate. We doubt if Senator Morgan can contain himself even in open session. He will see in Mr. Hay's negotiation a direct flouting of his own bill and report referring to a Nicaragua canal. Morgan's bill directs the President in express terms not only to "excavate" a canal, but to "defend" it. What is the use of a canal which you cannot defend—that is, go to war over? Moreover, Senator Morgan would have "fortifications for the defence of the canal." Shall these be basely abandoned at the request of the wily Briton? We have always maintained that a good part of the eagerness among politicians for an Isthmian canal was due to their hope of getting a rousing international quarrel by means of it. Their zeal will rapidly cool if it is to be a tame work of peace, for ever dedicated to peace; and their disappointment may take the form of a savage turning upon the Secretary who has tried to rob them of an ancient feud.

The Clayton-Bulwer treaty extended, and we understand its prospective modification will extend, not simply to the Nicaraguan route, but to any route whatever that may be pitched upon as the best for a canal across the Isthmus. In so far, and pending the report of our investigating commission, the scales are held even as between the Nicaragua and the Panama locations. It should not be forgotten, however, that there are other and serious diplomatic difficulties in the way of the Nicaragua route. These are the treaties still in force between Nicaragua, on the one hand, and Great Britain, France, Spain, Italy, and Belgium, on the other, securing to those nations equal rights in any interoceanic canal that may be constructed through Nicaraguan territory. Of course, if Secretary Hay is prepared to guarantee equal rights to all, it will doubtless be an easy matter to secure the abrogation or modification of the treaties mentioned. But they are still in vigor, and, until got out of the way, constitute an effective diplomatic barrier to our exclusive control of a canal via Lake Nicaragua.

Why, then, are the Nicaragua bills so urgently pressed in Congress? Why is the word quietly passed around that the Administration has set its heart on passing them? Why, above all, is it proposed to adopt the exceedingly awkward and irregular course of going blindly ahead without waiting for the report of our own commission? Well, we gather that Hanna very much desires the beginning of a canal as a political asset in Mr. McKinley's campaign for reëlection. He desires to include that in the gorgeous programme with which the country is to be beguiled. Here was a problem which had troubled our statesmen for more than half a century; but the great McKinley came along, and, lo! he loosed the Gordon knot of it, "familiar as his garter." Hanna also regarded the commission as a mean trick played upon him by Speaker Reed in the last Congress. Worse than simply refusing the money for the canal last year, it shoved the question along till next year. Why wait for the report of the eminent engineers when their appointment was a legacy left by a man now out of politics? Such, we understand, is the present working of the Ohio intellect, which does not see how indecent haste would leave the President in the attitude of eating his own words and repudiating his own appointees, and would be practically a fraud on the country. The legislative part of the business should be done with as decent a regard for the opinion of mankind as Secretary Hay has shown in the diplomatic part, if we are really to get a civilized canal in a civilized way.

OUR CONQUESTS AND OUR CONSTITUTION.

The report of the majority of the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives, in providing a tariff for Porto Rico different from that which prevails throughout the United States, raises perhaps the most momentous constitutional question which our country has ever faced. It commits the Republican party to the doctrine that Porto Rico is not in or a part of the United States; that the United States may have territory belonging to it to which the Constitution does not apply; and that Congress has power to act as the governing body of such territory without any constitutional limitations whatever. It is not surprising that the Democratic minority of the committee say of this doctrine that the majority submit no opinion or decision of the Supreme Court of the United States to sustain the contention they make. It would be remarkable if a court created by the Constitution for the purpose of pronouncing on the constitutionality of the acts of a Congress created in the same way, should declare that that body is not subject to constitutional limitations.

What that court has heretofore declared, when similar questions have come before it, admits of brief statement. The issue is a great one, but it is simple. The question whether the United States may acquire territory in war, or by treaty, is not now involved; and the power has been exercised so often that it would be unprofitable now to question its constitutionality. But the status of territory so acquired has been several times considered by the court, and its decisions contain language so apt in its application to the present situation, and so conclusive in its repudiation of the doctrine put forth by the party in power in Congress, that we quote it in the hope that it may attract the attention of the country.

The case of Loughborough vs. Black,

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reported in 5 Wheaton, arose from the act of Congress imposing a direct tax on the District of Columbia, and it was held that such taxes were constitutional if levied in proportion to the census directed to be taken by the Constitution. The following words were used by Chief Justice Marshall:

"The power, then, to lay and collect duties, imposts, and excises may be exercised, and must be exercised, throughout the United States. Does this term designate the whole, or any particular portion of the American empire? Certainly, this question can admit of but one answer. It is the name given to our great republic, which is composed of States and Territories. The District of Columbia, or the territory west of the Missouri, is not less within the United States than Maryland or Pennsylvania; and it is not less necessary, on the principles of our Constitution, that uniformity in the imposition of imposts, duties, and excises should be observed in the one than in the other."

The foregoing extract may be profitably compared with this declaration of the Republican majority of the Ways and Means Committee:

"(1.) That the term 'United States' in that provision of the Constitution which declares that 'all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States' means and is confined to the States that constitute the Federal Union, and does not cover also the territory belonging to the United States."

The general principle laid down above by Chief Justice Marshall was amplified and made more explicit by Chief Justice Taney in the celebrated Dred Scott case. In view of some of the attempts recently made to maintain that Congress has, during all our history, been administering our Territories in the exercise of a power free from constitutional limitations, the following passages are peculiarly apposite and timely:

"There is certainly no power given by the Constitution to the Federal Government to establish or maintain colonies bordering on the United States or at a distance, to be ruled and governed at its own pleasure. . . . No power is given to acquire a territory to be held and governed permanently in that character. . . . No one, we presume, will contend that Congress can make any law in a territory respecting the establishment of religion or the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or the right of the people of the territory peaceably to assemble and to petition the Government for the redress of grievances. Nor can Congress deny to the people the right to keep and bear arms, nor the right of trial by jury, nor compel any one to be a witness against himself in a criminal proceeding. . . . A power, therefore, in the general Government to obtain and hold colonies and dependent territories, over which they might legislate without restriction, would be inconsistent with its own existence in its present form."

Such language as this cannot be explained away. It gives a perfectly clear, intelligible, and consistent explanation of the status of territory acquired by the United States. It excludes, as thoroughly and completely as any language can do, the theory which the exigencies of protectionism have forced the Administration to adopt, that Congress, or the President, can exercise powers independently of all constitutional restraints. What decisions the Supreme Court may hereafter render we cannot predict; but it has only to follow established precedents to insure to the people of Hawaii and Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands the most important of those rights which the war of the Revolution was fought to secure to the people of the United States. To abandon these precedents is simply to hold that the men in control of the government of the United States can exercise the same autocratic powers over many millions of human beings that the Czar of Russia and his councillors can employ in ruling their subjects.

YEAR ONE OF THE EMPIRE.

It is now a full year since the treaty with Spain was ratified, and the ignoble and bloody war in the Philippines began —a true *annus horribilis*. Nothing but the gradual induration of heart and conscience could enable Americans to look back upon such a twelvemonth without shame. If they had been told on February 6, 1899, that February 6, 1900, would see the work of devastation and death still going on, they would have shrunk from the prospect with horror. Why should the retrospect seem any less repulsive to them? Shall we add to our disgrace by pretending now to approve what then we should have vehemently reprobated? At any rate, we cannot honestly refrain from reckoning up the bitter humiliations of this year in Cathay. We admit that the moral balance-sheet is not pleasant reading; but to those who take offence at it, we must say, with Swift, that we write for their amendment, not their approbation.

In one respect all are agreed—this Philippine year has been one of illusion succeeding illusion, and hope deferred. The war has dragged on its misery beyond all computation. A pitiful collection of unfulfilled prophecies could be made out of Gen. Otis's dispatches and the official utterances of the Government at Washington. Thus, on March 17, nearly a year ago, the Administration assured the country that hostilities would end "within a very short time." On March 24 we were informed that the insurgent army would have "ceased to exist" after Otis had delivered his next blow. Otis himself telegraphed on April 3 that the insurgent Government was in a "perilous condition." On April 4 the War Department was confident that "the backbone of the insurrection is broken." By April 29 Gen. Otis was positive that the insurgents were "tired of war." On May 18 the "end of the insurrection was at hand." But why go on with the record of promises never kept, and flattering hopes always dashed to the earth? Everybody recalls the general fact. The American people has been fed for a year on official optimism respecting the Philippines. The resisting power of the natives, the number of troops needed to subdue them, the cost of the war, have all been grossly miscalculated, so that we have to look back on a twelvemonth of disappointment and thwarting and humiliation, merely as respects our capacity to make war intelligently.

But on the side of moral and political standards and ideals, the year has brought us a disillusionment still more grievous. Its steps can be conveniently traced in the person of the President. He stands as a general type of the people in this regard—the "homme moyen," if there ever was one; and his own progress from first enduring to pitying and then embracing the Philippine vice is illustrative of the moral decay from which public sentiment at large has suffered. Mr. McKinley began by professing his earnest aim to "win the confidence, respect, and affection of the inhabitants of the Philippines," and to bestow upon them "the blessings of a good and stable government." When the unhappy war broke out, largely in consequence of his illegal and mischievous proclamation, he still was able to say, as he did say at Boston, that "every red drop from the veins of a misguided Filipino is anguish to my heart." But it was not long before he began to threaten the "cruel leaders" under whom the Filipinos fought so heroically, and to assert truculently, like another Arolas or Weyler, that he would tolerate no further "parley" with such miscreants. From that it is only a short step to the proclamation which he is now said to be contemplating, declaring all Filipinos in arms to be bandits, and so liable to be hung without trial. That would be a fitting end of the policy of "benevolent assimilation."

We do not mean to single out the President for special condemnation, except as his official power and responsibility call for special severity of judgment. He only typifies the general decadence which results from the abandonment of principle. The country has sinned with him and suffers with him. From tolerating an alleged necessary evil, we have gone on to defending it and then exulting in it. If the President does issue an order to string up on sight every Filipino taken with arms in his hands, he will be but executing the policy which too many people are advocating with unconscious brutality. Such is the sure acceleration of tyranny when once we adopt its methods. That is the true explanation of the cries of "Treason" heard even in the Senate. It has come to be felt that every objection to what is going on in the Philippines is an affront to the head of the state, an impairment of the reverence and awe due him, and so a lessening of his chances of reëlection. Who could be a more unblushing traitor than one who hoped that Mr. McKinley's Philippine performances would endanger his continuance in office?

To get a proper perspective for the

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humiliation which the United States have undergone through this Philippine business, we need to look at the matter from the international point of view. What a disgrace it is for us to encounter on every hand sneers at our good faith, taunts at our incompetence, and cries of disgust at our professed ardor for liberty! Even Spaniards talk condescendingly of our ignorant blundering in the Philippines. You cannot speak with an Englishman or Frenchman or German about the Philippines without seeing how we have, and deserve, their wondering scorn. The Boer war has come as a timely touchstone of what we have lost. One cry of "How about the Filipinos?" is sufficient to check the most eloquent orator in the midst of his appeals for the heroic Dutchmen of South Africa. We have disabled ourselves from expressing sympathy with any oppressed people on earth. Our generous professions of love for liberty stick in our throats (the blood of Danton chokes us) as we think of what we have been doing in this Year One of our new Empire.

If the events of the past twelvemonth have been thus melancholy for ourselves, what have they been to the Filipinos? We are bound to consider their feelings in reckoning up the total result. Even granting that we have the noblest impulses in the world, and the best intentions, we have to take into the account what they think of us. Their sentiment towards us is what we are mainly trying to influence; and what is that sentiment to-day? What would an educated Filipino say had been the chief import of the year past to his people? He would have a terrible array of disasters to specify. He would point to dawning hopes of liberty crushed to earth by the land of liberty; to broken promises; to trenches full of Filipino dead; to smoking heaps where once were happy villages; to desolate fields and ruined industries and starving women and children; to soldiers, with no heart in their task, pursuing the defenders of freedom to their last stronghold in the mountains—and he would say:

"These are the tyrant's trophies of a year."

THE NEW CONSULAR BILL.

The question of a reform in our consular service was, it will be remembered, taken up seriously over a year ago by a number of the chief chambers of commerce throughout the country; the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce, through its then President, Harry A. Garfield, being in the lead. Of course, no action was had by the last Congress, as questions growing out of the war with Spain pushed all other measures aside. The matter has now been revived before the present Congress, and at the joint invitation of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York through Mr. Schwab, and of the Cleveland Chamber through Mr. Garfield, a concerted effort is being made by the principal trade organizations to secure consideration of a new bill which has been introduced by Mr. Burton of Ohio in the House and by Mr. Lodge of Massachusetts in the Senate.

This is, we believe, the seventh bill on the subject that has been presented to Congress in the last three years, and it bears about it signs of expert preparation, which its predecessors have lacked. It is announced that ex-Secretary Day has given it his general approval, and that ex-Secretary John W. Foster has endorsed it as the best measure thus far introduced, and earnestly favors its passage. It is understood, also, that the State Department regards it with approval; but on this point there should hardly be room for doubt, as successive Secretaries of State have, for many years past, declared in favor of remodelling our antiquated consular service.

The new bill provides for Consuls-General of three classes, with salaries from $5,000 to $8,000 per annum, and for consuls of six classes, with salaries rising from $1,500 to $5,000 per annum. It requires a reclassification of all the existing consular offices, and permits the abolishing of any that are or shall become superfluous. All the present incumbents are to be assigned to consulates with salaries as nearly as possible the same as those they now receive, after which they are to be gradually recalled and subjected to the same examination as is required for entrance to the service. Those who pass are to be definitively a part of the new system, and those who fail are to be dropped out. The service is to be arranged by classes and not by places, so that the consuls may be shifted from one station to another, according to the needs of the service. All unofficial fees, which now go into the consuls' pockets, and the full amount of which no one can more than guess at, are to be turned into the Treasury, so that the only compensation shall be by fixed salaries. It is probable that this provision would result in making the whole service not far from self-supporting. Vacancies above the lowest class are to be filled from the next lower class, but the President may skip a class in making a nomination, provided he publishes his reasons for doing so.

Entrance to the consular service is to be after public competitive examination by a board composed of the Secretary of State or an official of the State Department acting for him, an officer of the consular service, and the Civil-Service Commissioners. The names of five persons who pass the best examination are to be certified to the President, and from them he is to make his nomination. A new appointee may be dropped at any time during the first year of his service, but after that he cannot be dismissed except for due cause and after trial before a board. A unique feature of the bill permits the assignment, by the President's order, of any consul to special duty in the United States for a period of not more than one year at a time, and permits the nomination to consulates without examination of persons who have been in the classified service of the State Department for at least two years, thus creating an interconvertible service, and making experience in the foreign service available for the home office, and experience in the home office available for the foreign service. The subjects of examination for entrance to the service are left largely to the examining board, but they are required to include a knowledge of French, German, or Spanish, and no one is to be assigned to a consulate in a country where the United States exercises extra-territorial jurisdiction unless he shall have passed an examination in the principles of the common law, the rules of evidence, and the trial of civil and criminal cases.

Such are the chief provisions of the bill. If, in the multitude of measures already before Congress, many of which will have the benefit of greater personal importunity than the consular bill can expect to enlist, the chances appear to be against favorable action at this session, the fact should not discourage the advocates of the reform, which is based upon just principles, and is rapidly gathering strength.

Our consular service has been anything but a source of credit. It is true that from it has emanated an excellent series of printed consular reports, but these come from a small proportion of the consuls, and are, after all, rather a tribute to the system evolved by the Bureau of Foreign Commerce of the State Department than to the consular service as a whole. Every traveller and every person engaged in foreign trade knows the deficiencies of the service. It is largely recruited from a class of small politicians who look upon it as only a temporary refuge, and not as a permanent career offering any opportunity of advancement. From such a class it would be unreasonable to expect good consuls to come; and almost before they have been trained to their new duties, they are recalled to make room for other small politicians of a different political faith. There is thus no stability in the service; it is composed of constantly shifting individuals, who are not wholly responsible for their conduct to the service itself. The consequence is that our foreign trade suffers, that the rights of individual Americans are often put in jeopardy, that our prestige is lessened, and that we are humiliated in the eyes of foreign nations. In the face of this situation, which the passage of the Chambers of Commerce bill would rectify, it would seem to be simply a patriotic duty for Congress to respond to the general demand in favor of the reform.

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MOREAU.

PARIS, January 25, 1900.

The life of General Moreau has never been written with the fulness which is found in modern biographies. His end cast a gloom over his beginnings; he remains among the dark figures of history. His great victories are mixed up with the darkest days of the French Revolution; his name, however, will always be connected with the famous Republican armies of the Rhine—armies of volunteers, led by young generals, which astonished the world by their endurance and their audacity, and which paved the way for the brilliant successes of the Empire. The history of Moreau's campaigns belongs chiefly to the period of the Directory; he deserved to be considered as the worthy rival of young General Bonaparte, whose first campaigns in Italy astonished the world and began a new era in the terrible art of war.

The operation of the armies of the Rhine in 1796, after the defeat of Jourdan, ended in Moreau's famous retreat, which was considered as great a feat as a victory. When the Archduke Charles, after having crushed Jourdan's forces, forced him to recross the Rhine, Moreau had already crossed the Danube and the Lech, and was on his way to Munich. When he heard of Jourdan's retreat, he found himself isolated; he immediately began his retreat by the valley of the Danube, having sixty thousand men following him in the rear, and expecting to find sixty thousand Austrians in the passes of the Black Forest. He fought a battle on his way, gained it, went through the Valley of Hell (Val d'Enfer), and reached the Rhine in perfect order after a march of twenty-six days. After a petty engagement with the advance guard of the Archduke, he recrossed the Rhine by the bridges of Breisach and Hüningen. This splendid retreat gave Moreau a high place among the generals of his time, and he was looked upon as a worthy rival of Gen. Bonaparte.

I cannot follow Moreau in his successive campaigns. His reputation grew from year to year, and, after the battle of Hohenlinden, equalled that of Napoleon. The imperial army of the Danube in 1800 was a hundred thousand strong, under the Archduke John. Moreau had a hundred thousand men between the Isar and the Inn. The operations of the armies of the Rhine and of Italy were to be harmonized. The Archduke John suffered a great defeat at Hohenlinden; he lost six thousand men and sixteen thousand prisoners. The Austrians retreated in the greatest disorder; in twenty days they lost forty thousand men and a hundred and fifty guns. Vienna was terrified. The Emperor gave the command to the Archduke Charles I., but it was too late. When the Archduke saw the state of the army, he begged the Emperor to make peace at any price. Moreau, who had arrived at Steyer, consented to an armistice on condition that Austria would treat separately from England, and that the fortresses of Tyrol and Bavaria should be placed in the hands of the French.

From the day of Hohenlinden, Moreau became a formidable rival to Napoleon; he became during the Consulate even a centre of opposition. Many of the generals and officers of the armies of the Rhine were hostile to the heroes of the armies of Italy, who had become richer, more popular; they affected the Republican ways and manners of the first armies of the Revolutionary period, in contrast with the more frivolous manners of the brilliant officers who surrounded Napoleon, and who already formed a sort of court. The Republicans, those whom Napoleon afterwards called the idealogues, thought to find in Moreau the head of a real Republic, of a wise and constitutional government; the royalists imagined that Moreau would be tempted some day to play the part of Monk.

Moreau heard them all, and gave no definite hope to anybody; his chief passion was jealousy of Bonaparte—a jealousy which became a real hatred, and was increased by purely personal considerations. The vanity of his wife and his mother-in-law, Madame Hulot, had been wounded by the First Consul and Madame Bonaparte. The relations between Napoleon and Moreau became such that, in the great trial of 1804 of the royalist George Cadoudal and Pichegru, Moreau was designated by Napoleon as their accomplice and condemned to two years' imprisonment. He was held up as a promoter of civil war, as an agent of foreign Powers. There seems little doubt that Napoleon desired and expected that the judges would condemn Moreau to capital punishment. He found the punishment too lenient, not wishing Moreau to remain in France, even in prison. At Fouché's instigation, Madame Moreau went to Josephine, the new Empress, with a letter in which she asked for her husband permission to go to the United States. Napoleon at once commuted the sentence rendered against Moreau into perpetual exile. Moreau started for the United States the day of the execution of Cadoudal and his friends. His name was struck from the army rolls. His private property was sold; under cover of Fouché's name, Napoleon bought his hôtel in Paris, which he gave to Bernadotte, and the estate of Grosbois, which he gave to Berthier. Moreau was not allowed to start for the United States from England; he received a passport for Cadiz and left Europe from Spain. At Barcelona he was joined by Madame Moreau and their young son; from Barcelona they went to Cadiz, where, a few days afterwards, Madame Moreau was confined and had a daughter. They were obliged to remain several months, and left only in July, 1805, in an American ship.

Talleyrand sent special instructions with regard to General Moreau to the French Minister at Washington, named Turreau. The arrival at Philadelphia was reported by Turreau in these terms:

"Moreau lodged, after landing, with a certain Madame Cottineau, who pretends to be a relation of Madame Moreau. The house was soon filled with all sorts of people, and the General had to receive 'How d' ye do's' till he was deaf, and shake hands till he was lame. The next day a fraction of what is here called the army, two companies of the town militia, came to pay their respects. Moreau, not knowing the language of the country, was reduced to salutations. The ex-General remained only three days in town, and started for Morrisville, an estate which he has taken near Trenton."

Moreau established himself there, on the Delaware River; he spent his time in fishing and hunting, and made long journeys as far as the Mississippi, the Great Lakes, and (in the South) Louisiana. He spent his winters in New York and Philadelphia. Mme. Moreau, who was still young, was fond of society. It would be interesting to have some account of the impression made by Moreau on American society; we know very little on this subject. Mme. Moreau made the acquaintance of a Frenchwoman whose husband, Hyde de Neuville, had been a secret agent of the Bourbons in Paris, under the Consulate, and who had been obliged to leave France. The two ladies met accidentally at a watering-place. Hyde de Neuville arrived in America in 1807, with a letter for Moreau from Mme. de Mouchy, but Moreau was rather shy of making his acquaintance. By degrees the intimacy which sprang up between the two ladies brought the husbands nearer together. Hyde de Neuville succeeded in bringing Moreau over to the idea of a monarchical restoration in France.

Moreau was directly tempted in another way on the side of Russia. He was not willing to serve Austria or England, from fear of offending French feelings; he was not unwilling to form an independent French corps made up of soldiers who had served under him and to use this force, in alliance with Russia and Prussia, against the man whom he considered the scourge of Europe. Such dreams savored of high treason, and it was Moreau's misfortune to have entertained them. His independent force never existed except in his imagination; his coöperation with Russia and Prussia became a reality. In the month of August, 1805, the principal adviser of the Emperor Alexander, Prince Czartoryski, offered Moreau the place of general in the ranks of the allied armies. At that time, Moreau had left for America. He wrote a polite answer to the Emperor, refusing his offer. In 1812, when war broke out between the United States and England, Moreau offered his services to President Madison. His wife fell ill, and left for Europe. Bernadotte, who had become Prince Royal of Sweden and had entered into the coalition against Napoleon, made new offers to Moreau, through Madame de Staël. At the end of 1812, Moreau sent his aide-de-camp, Repatel, with instructions to St. Petersburg and Stockholm. He wrote a letter to Bernadotte, in which he said: "I am ready to enter France at the head of French troops, but I cannot conceal from you my repugnance to reëntering it at the head of foreign troops." He left America with a passport (under the name of John Caro, born in Louisiana) on June 21, 1813. On July 26 he landed at Gothenburg, and the Swedish general who received him said to him: "You bring us in your person an army of a hundred thousand men."

Moreau left Sweden somewhat disgusted with the personal and egoistical views of Bernadotte, and, joining the headquarters of the allied sovereigns, found the Czar at Prague, where he met Jomini. The rest is well known: at the battle of Dresden, Moreau was riding next to the Czar, between too English officers, Cathcart and Wilson; he was struck by a cannon-ball and mortally wounded.

Correspondence.

KENTUCKY AND THE BOSS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: William Goebel, a Senator for the State of Kentucky and contestant for the

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office of Governor before the General Assembly, was shot and probably mortally wounded on Tuesday last, while entering the capitol at Frankfort. Kentucky has an unenviable and to some degree a deserved reputation for crimes of blood, but this most shocking episode of our history needs some explanation. I have yet to find a man, Democrat or Republican, of any standing who believes it was the act of any but some irresponsible and over-excited individual acting for himself alone. His escape amid the excitement that immediately followed the crime is regretted by all parties, as his punishment by process of law was certain. The crime itself has been extenuated by no one. Both parties stand appalled at the monstrous conditions that made it possible; both want peace, both are afraid to push their cause to the arbitrament of arms. But one man is responsible for the condition, and that man is the victim lying prone and dying at Frankfort.

Goebel has his example in Quay, in Tammany, and in the bosses of Ohio. These succeed in their respective States, and resistance ceases with an indignant editorial in the opposition paper and then supine submission. I take some pride in the thought that among us civil liberty is not so lightly held, and that resistance to the tyranny of an irresponsible political ring is not so feeble. We will not submit; and though our rougher virtues show at times the savage characteristics that exist unfortunately to some degree, yet we can give assurance to the world that liberty shall not die among us in our own time, that no political tyrant shall rob us of political liberty. Amid all this turmoil, life and property are safe and shall continue so. Kentucky even to-day is not an armed camp. Outside of Frankfort, business proceeds without disturbance. A calm, resolute, and determined people know their rights, and are determined lawfully to preserve them. A DEMOCRAT.

LOUISVILLE, February 2, 1900.

A HARMONY OF ABBOTT GOSPELS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you are nearer the Editor of the *Outlook* than many of us who have been trying to comprehend his apologies for Sulu slavery under the American flag, and destined expansion in general, perhaps you can the better reconcile his present arguments with comparatively recent teachings of Lyman Abbott. In 1896 Dr. Abbott published an attractive little book, entitled 'Christianity and Social Problems.' In it are the following words on self-government:

"The birth at Bethlehem sounded the knell of imperial prerogatives and privileged classes throughout the world. What is liberty? 'The true liberty of a man,' said Carlyle, 'you would say consisted in his finding out, or being forced to find out, the right path and to walk therein; to learn, or to be taught, what work he is actually able to do, and then by permission, persuasion, or even compulsion, to be set about doing the same. Oh, if thou really art my senior, my elder, or priest—if thou art in any way wiser—may a beneficent instinct lead and impel thee to conquer and command me! If thou do know better than I what is good and right, I conjure you, in the name of God, force me to do it; were it never by such brass collars, whips, and handcuffs, leave me not to walk over precipices.'"

Dr. Abbott thus quotes Carlyle's idea of liberty, which is a good plea for benevolent assimilation, and then he gives this vigorous answer:

"No, this is not liberty; it is servitude. Servitude may be better than walking over precipices; but it is not liberty. Liberty is ability to do as one pleases. Freedom is the exemption from the power and control of another; this is liberty. It assumes not that every man can safely govern himself, but first that it is safer to leave every man to govern himself than to put any man under the government of another man, or any class of men under the government of any other class; and, secondly, that there is such potentiality of self-governing power in every man, such capacity to learn by his blunders, that he will acquire a wisdom and a self-restraint through the very perils of self-government, which he will never acquire under the protecting government of others wiser and better than himself."

This seems to be sound doctrine, but it does not harmonize with the *Outlook*. This was the doctrine of the Republican party in enfranchising the freedmen of the South. Kentucky, according to the Carlyle idea of self-government, may be in need of brass collars, whips, and handcuffs, but Dr. Abbott believed, four years ago, that it were better policy to allow the Kentuckians to learn through the perils of self-government than to place them under a protecting government better than themselves. Why does not the Filipino possess "potentiality of self-government, and capacity to learn by his blunders, that he may acquire a wisdom and self-restraint through the very perils of self-government, which he never will acquire under the protecting government of others better and wiser than himself"? If you can explain the Lyman Abbott of 1900 in the light of the Lyman Abbott of 1896, you will confer a favor upon a reader of the *Nation* and the *Outlook*. ARTHUR C. LUDLOW.

CLEVELAND, O., January 31, 1900.

THALIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, in the "spinning and weaving" of his novel, 'Janice Meredith,' appears to have caught up one small filament of rather doubtful quality. In the fourteenth chapter are some verses, presumably of Mr. Ford's composing, entitled, "To Thalia." The opening stanza is as follows:

"These lines to her my passion tell,
Describe the empire of her spell,
A love which naught will e'er dispel,
That flames for sweetest Thalia."

The scansion of the fourth line shows that the author accents the name Thalia upon the first syllable. In other words, he treats it as if it were a rhyme to "Badalia" (of Gunnison Street), whereas, according to both rule and custom, it is a rhyme to "Obadiah." That it is intended to be pronounced as a trochee is made clear by the remark put into Tibbie Drinker's mouth a little later, that "If thee copies it fair, and puts in 'Delia' or 'Celia,' 'twill do to show to the girls." It may, perhaps, be granted that to Tibbie and the Merediths a popular mispronunciation like Tha'lia would be allowable; but a like concession cannot be made to the hero Charles. He is a man of culture, who, knowing his Pope, would surely recall the lines of the 'Dunciad'—

"There sunk Thalia, nerveless, cold and dead,
Had not her sister Satire held her head."

And Charles is not the man to affront one of the Graces by giving currency to a mispronunciation of the lady's name; he is far too gallant.—Yours truly,

FRED NEWTON SCOTT.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* appearing to-day, p. 88, on Hindu Proverbs, citing *ne sutor*, I see I have carelessly written *ultra* for *supra* (*crepidam*). I should like to correct the obvious error.—Yours truly,

WASHBURN HOPKINS.

NEW HAVEN, February 1, 1900.

Notes.

'John Ruskin,' by M. H. Spielmann, will be issued directly from the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

A. Wessels Co. of this city, successors to M. F. Mansfield & A. Wessels, announce 'London Souvenirs,' by C. W. Heckethorn; 'The House of Commons,' by Sir Richard Temple; 'The History of the Temple,' by G. Pitt-Lewis, Q. C.; 'Aubrey Beardsley: A Catalogue of his Drawings,' by A. E. Gallatin; 'Ivory Apes and Peacocks,' by "Israfel"; and 'The Search of Ceres,' poems by Sarah Warner Brooks.

"Macmillan's Pocket American Classics" series, set down for the spring, will consist of 18mo volumes derived from Irving, Poe, Franklin, Lowell, and Cooper; "Pocket English Classics" will be continued with selections from Milton, Scott, and Shakspere. The same house has in preparation 'European Travel for Women,' by Mrs. Mary Cadwalader Jones, and 'The Nervous System of the Child,' by Dr. Francis Warner.

Henry Holt & Co. are to publish 'The Practical Study of Languages,' by Prof. Henry Sweet; 'Specimens of Forms of Discourse,' by E. H. Lewis; and an anthology for wayfarers, 'The Open Road,' compiled by Edward Verrall Lucas.

'Trusts and the Public' is the title of Mr. George Gunton's new book, to be published immediately by D. Appleton & Co.

Charles W. Sever & Co., Cambridge, Mass., announce a second edition of Thayer's 'Cases on Evidence,' to be out in August next. It will have considerable changes, remaining, however, of substantially the same size as before.

Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, have in press 'The Anglo-Boer Conflict,' by Alleyne Ireland, and 'Indian Story and Song from North America,' by Miss Alice C. Fletcher.

The American publishers of 'The Expansion of Egypt,' reviewed by us in No. 1804, are the New Amsterdam Book Co. of this city.

Stately reprints at a very low cost are the two volumes of "Macmillan's Library of English Classics" before us, viz., Sheridan's Plays and Bacon's Essays. The series, which will number at least twenty-five volumes, will make its way by handsome typography and careful collation of texts. Mr. A. W. Pollard, in charge of the latter, furnishes for each volume a bibliographical introduction, and no other apparatus is promised. In the case of Sheridan, he has followed Moore's text, with correction of some carelessnesses that have been perpetuated. The text preferred for the Essays is

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that of 1675, and the volume is filled out with "The Colors of Good and Evil" and "The Advancement of Learning." The spelling has been modernized, and Mr. Pollard has generously added a glossary and a translation of the Latin quotations. This series, which ranges from Sir John Mandeville's Travels to Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' and from Shelton's 'Don Quixote' to De Quincey's 'Confessions,' must command a widespread popularity.

A still more striking reprint is the small-quarto edition of Gilbert White's 'Natural History of Selborne' (London and New York: John Lane), edited by the late Grant Allen. This is so handsomely printed and bound, so copiously and aptly illustrated, so carefully edited and indexed, as to discourage any near attempt to rival it. Coleridge's annotations upon his own copy—made somewhat apologetically, for fear of "lessening the value of this sweet delightful book"—are now first printed. They are remarkable, not so much as corrections of White's occasional errors, nor even as new evidence of Coleridge's encyclopædic knowledge, but as adding the testimony of so sound a critic to the charm the book possesses for so many and so different people—enduring after a hundred years and into nearly a hundred known editions.

White's influence that was apparent in Mr. Dewar's 'Wild Life in the Hampshire Highlands,' which we recently praised, also appears in Mr. J. Arthur Gibbs's 'A Cotswold Village' (London: John Murray; New York: Scribners). This is a bulky duodecimo, handsomely printed and illustrated. The subtitle, "Country Life and Pursuits in Gloucestershire," is more aptly descriptive of the book, which is a pot-pourri of local history and tradition, fox-hunting, shooting, fishing, cricket, politics, landscape, and architecture. In this last feature Gloucestershire is rich, possessing not only the Roman remains of Cirencester and its environs, but examples of all the periods of English Gothic, from the early Norman churches down to those oak-raftered Elizabethan barns which pass for architectural masterpieces. In describing them, the author is appreciative and not too technical, whereas the lovely Gloucestershire landscape is apt to seduce him into a reckless use of adjectives. His aim throughout is so modest ("to please rather than to instruct") that he is safe from unkind criticism, unless, perhaps, from the unhappy puffins whom he introduces as kin among the hawks (p. 112)!

Those who have enjoyed Mr. Maurice Hewlett's 'Earthwork Out of Tuscany,' first published daintily some four years ago, will extend a welcome to a new (third) edition (Putnams), backed in white and gold, with the illustrations increased by several photogravures. It would appear, then, that the elect who have yielded to his impressions of Italy, and of whom in the second edition he could say, "Not more than two in every hundred who have read me have known what I was at," have increased in numbers. Whether for what he calls the religion of his book, or for the poetry of his style, these fantastically entitled pictures, essays, allegories, and stories are warmly to be commended anew.

Mr. Edwin Emerson, jr., had a brilliant opportunity for satire in bringing back 'Pepys's Ghost' to walk among our own contemporaries (Boston: Richard G. Badger & Co.). The first of his adventures are told divertingly, and are quite in the vein; but dragging the old fellow through Cuba with the Rough Riders was cruel hard, and left him, on his return to Montauk, but the shadow of a shade. Pepys's judgment of men during this incarnation seems, perhaps, less shrewd than of old. It was quite in character, however, that a man corrupted by the loose and convivial ways of Charles's navy should have shrunk before the austere rectitude of Admiral Sampson.

Miss Pamela Coleman Smith, who hails from Jamaica and is vouched for by Thomas Nelson Page, gives us the 'Annancy Stories' (R. H. Russell), a collection of local negro tales on the Uncle Remus order. For Breda Annancy's usurpation of Brer Rabbit's honored position we are prepared, and likewise for the substitution of Breda Paarat and Breda Tiger, with other unfamiliar beasts, in the more humble rôles. It is with some surprise, however, that we fail to find more of the familiar earmarks, that we had been led to believe were in this hemisphere visible in all negro animal stories, denoting their common origin. We discover in this series but two which are even suggestive of those in Mr. Harris's extensive collection. Annancy's adventure with the wasps and as the rider of Breda Tiger remind us of Brer Rabbit and the mosquitoes and his humiliation of Brer Fox before "Miss Meadows en de gals." In other instances Grimm's Fairy Tales seem to have been the source of inspiration. Copious illustrations from the author's pen fill this little volume, which is not unamusing.

'Mexican Vistas,' by Harriott Wight Sherratt (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.), purports, according to its motto, to set forth certain analogies to the land of Edom, in compassing which "the soul of the people was sore discouraged." But Mrs. Sherratt's soul was never discouraged, in spite of the ruggedness of Mount Seir. The analogy might have been pressed judiciously in other directions. In more ways than one, Mexico is the American Edom. We have here, however, no critical study, but a jolly record of travel by a bright, jovial woman, who has presented her experiences in conventional language that will oppose no difficulties to the ordinary Pullman-car reader. The pictures of life are faithful and free from exaggeration, and the comments on customs and racial idiosyncrasies are unusually kind and sympathetic. The illustrations are a help to the text, but the reader should be warned not to follow the author's spelling of Mexican names without verification.

Signor Lanciani's 'Destruction of Ancient Rome' (Macmillan Co.) is a duller book than we had supposed so bright a man could make. But it is obviously a pot-boiler, consisting of little more than a brief catalogue or summary of the destroyers and the things which they destroyed. The general reader will find the treatment too meagre to be of interest, and scholars will wait for the larger work promised by the same author.

Mr. E. S. Shuckburgh may fairly be congratulated upon a piece of good and useful work in his translation of the 'Letters of Cicero' (London: Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co.). Two volumes are already published, and when the whole (in four volumes) has appeared, it will furnish the first English translation of the entire series of letters which passed back and forth between Cicero and his friends, a correspondence not surpassed in interest and importance by any other that is known. The two volumes cover the years 68-49 B. C. To each volume is prefixed an introduction on the principal events in Cicero's private life and on public affairs, and nearly every page is supplied with notes on social, historical, and biographical matters. Mr. Shuckburgh has succeeded in making the letters read like genuine productions, not rhetorical imitations of epistolary correspondence. The colloquial style which he has adopted is free from dulness, and yet seldom degenerates into offensive modern slang. We wish that the printer had left us a little more inside margin, for the books do not open easily; but the paper is good and the ink black.

No. 40 of "The Religion of Science Library" (Chicago: Open Court Co.), entitled 'Kant and Spencer,' by Dr. Paul Carus, being a criticism of Spencer and his agnosticism, and a comparison of his metaphysics with that of its true author, Kant, is well worth attention. In some recent remarks on Kant as an important precursor of modern evolutionism, we were probably influenced unawares by one of the chapters of this brochure which had appeared in the *Monist*. We shall not express approval of the acrid tone of the criticism, which is of a kind obsolescent even in Germany. To say that Herbert Spencer has been a man who "shirks the toil of research" is not to invite philosophical discussion, and is really too much. It is difficult to conceive how such personalities can be to the taste of a philosopher, *i. e.*, of a man intent mainly on supplying the defects of his own knowledge. In this country, they will not even serve the purpose of the man who is only eager to teach. Mr. Spencer has surely put out his talent to usury if ever any man did; and what he has succeeded in accomplishing must, in any fair estimate, be called immense—an epithet that leaves room for an infinite shortcoming, of course.

Prof. Carl Budde of Strassburg has proved himself one of the most fruitful and original of the younger students of Old Testament problems. His Quinâ discovery and his hypothesis of the "Song of Songs" and of the "Song of the Well" have been definite and permanent steps in advance. A full recognition of the comparative method in history, sociology, and literature has characterized his work, and his views, whether accepted or not, have always tended to bring clarity into the subject of them. Yet only with the present little volume on the 'Religion of Israel to the Exile: American Lectures on the History of Religions' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) have we a connected statement from him in Old Testament theology. His attitude on many points, on some of which he differs widely from the dominant school, was already known; but this gives us his reconstruction, as a whole, of the early development of the religion of the Hebrews. In that respect the book has great importance for the specialist; and the non-specialist, to whom it is primarily addressed, will find in it a lucid résumé of the positive results of the newer criticism. It is one of the best, if not absolutely the best, in the series to which it belongs.

It may be of general interest to learn that the Library Company of Philadelphia has just been presented with five large

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volumes of newspaper cuttings from foreign papers during our civil war. The London *Morning Star, Daily Post, Daily News, Daily Telegraph, Morning Chronicle,* and Manchester *Examiner* are some of the English papers contributing to these excerpts.

The desert sand-dunes bordering on the Nile Delta, their origin, growth, and structural characteristics, are described in the *Geographical Journal* for January by Mr. V. Cornish. He touches also on the attempts made to check the progress of the sand, which in a stiff breeze amounts to three-quarters of an inch per hour, by plantations mainly of casuarina. The peasants "seem to have an inherited aptitude for the work [of planting], which they do with a will" for a wage of a franc a day. Vice-Admiral Makaroff of the Russian navy contributes an interesting account of the *Yermak* ice-breaker and its cruise last August to the north of Spitsbergen, together with some observations on the movement, temperature, strength, gravity, and salinity of the polar ice. Its maximum thickness it was impossible to determine. An unexpected result of the cruise, which may lead to the use of these ice-breakers in arctic and antarctic explorations, was the discovery of the ease with which polar ice was penetrated in comparison with that of the Baltic. The salt polar ice, fourteen feet thick, "provided there is room to remove the broken parts," cracked more easily, and progress in it was more rapid than in the fresh-water ice in the Baltic "composed of pieces no more than two to three feet thick." The *Belgica's* experience in the cutting of a canal to enable it to escape from the antarctic ice-pack would seem to tally with this. Both articles are fully illustrated.

A specimen number of the *Russian Journal of Financial Statistics*, printed in St. Petersburg, is being distributed gratis, and presents some curious aspects. Announcement is made that a second number will also be distributed free, and the first year of the *Journal* will begin with the issue of September, 1900. No subscriptions will be received before August. Not only is this initial number printed in English, but its 236 pages are devoted to a defence of Russian finance against foreign criticism, notably that of the London *Economist*. It has the flavor, therefore, of a Government or official issue, and of a campaign document. However interesting may be the matter it contains—and many topics are treated—its political features stand foremost. The debt, liquor monopoly, and budget statements, and the account of Russia as a proprietor and capitalist, are all of value, and, with a little suppression of the polemical spirit, will do service in making foreigners better acquainted with the financial concerns of that great empire. The *Journal* is not intended to take the place of the *Bulletin Russe*, but to supplement it, more directly in its financial statements. Russian finance has always been a perplexing matter, for the policy of the Treasury has been subordinated to state policy. The editor, "G. B. V.," makes a good hit at the political statisticians of the United States Treasury, and points out their superficiality.

A striking illustration of the remarkable celerity with which armies can now be transported from one part of the world to another was given in the recent "experimental" movement of Russian troops. On December 24 a force, variously estimated at from one to two battalions or divisions even, left Tiflis in the Caucasus by rail for Baku, crossed the Caspian, and then went by rail to Kushk on the frontier of Afghanistan, a distance of some 1,500 miles, arriving on January 1. While the act is described by the Russian military authorities as an experiment, it may be indicative of the intention of Russia to avail itself of Great Britain's stress to break through to the sea and secure a port.

A plan, first conceived thirty-five years ago, by Richard Wagner, and since then never quite abandoned, is just beginning to take shape in the erection of a new theatre at Munich. The proportions and arrangement of the interior will be those of the Wagner Theatre at Bayreuth, and the building will be constructed in part after the plans drawn by the architect Semper in 1865. It is intended exclusively for the German musical drama and the Shaksperian and other great classical plays, all to be put under one management with the other two royal theatres. The probability, therefore, is, that after March 12, 1901, the day on which it is proposed to open the new house with the representation of the "Meistersinger," devotees of Wagner will direct their pilgrimage to the Bavarian capital rather than to the crowded Franconian town.

The representation, a few weeks ago, of Ibsen's "Nora" in German before an enthusiastic mixed French and German audience in one of the theatres on the Paris boulevards, followed by favorable, even flattering, notices in many of the daily papers, forms a significant contrast to the chauvinistic outbursts of last summer. One ought never to forget that Frenchmen must not be taken too seriously in their manifestations of hatred or of love. The generous reception accorded to this German company, the first that has ventured to appear in the French capital since the great war, is in large measure due to the artistic excellence of the leading actress, Frau Agnes Sorma—a new proof that the highest art transcends the bounds of nationality.

—Prof. Rufus B. Richardson, Director of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, writes us under date of January 16 as follows:

"Salomon Reinach, whose judgment weighs as much as that of any archæologist in France, in the *Revue Archéologique* (1899, p. 339), after giving the substance of an article contributed by me to the *Nation* of August 24, 1899, adds the following paragraph: 'The excavations at Corinth have cost about fifteen thousand francs a year; it is very little for excavations of this sort, and the American School with reason complains of not having larger sums at its disposal. Certainly archæological achievements like the recovery of the topography of Corinth ought to suffice to recommend the young and valiant school to the liberality of American Crœsuses.' Prof. Wilamowitz-Möllendorff, who occupies a similar position among the scholars of Germany, in the *Deutsche Literaturzeitung* (May 6, 1899, p. 701), says of the excavation of Peirene: 'By this the cornerstone for the topography of Corinth is found. One can wish nothing better for the young institution [the American School] than success in a great undertaking which of itself will augment its powers and lend steadiness to its aspirations.' These utterances of great foreigners are consoling; but they cannot prevent the enterprise which they praise from lapsing unless haply they help to bring home to some rich American the importance of our work. With this object I wish to give these utterances a wider circulation."

—The current quarterly instalment of the Oxford Dictionary (Henry Frowde) is Mr. Henry Bradley's, and carries the letter G from Glass-coach to Graded. Nearly twenty-one columns are occupied with the monosyllable Go, some American uses of which have naturalized themselves in England or (as "go ahead," "go back on") are in a fair way to do so. "Go in for" is cited, through Bartlett, from the *Tribune* of December 25, 1849; in 1862 *Temple Bar* tried it tentatively between quotation marks, in 1863, Kingsley boldly (in 'Water Babies'), and now it is any Englishman's property. Gen. Perronet Thompson, whose sympathy with our abolitionists made him an interested student of American affairs, in 1840 wrote of "the active, the wide-awake, or, as the Americans would call it, the 'go-ahead' portion of the Established Sect," and in 1859 Mill asks, "Do we find in Canada that go-ahead spirit?" while Kingsley in 1864 exclaims, "What a go-ahead place France is!" The Gallicism "goes without saying" is first traced to *Scribner's Magazine* in 1878, but it is, of course, much older. Gown, whose Celtic derivation is here disputed, has undergone fluctuations in English usage, after being the ordinary word for a woman's garment in the eighteenth century. We have been more conservative than John Bull, and "in the United States it has always been the current word." Grab, employed intransitively, takes only *at* in England, while we feel free to use *for* also. A little dry humor lights up the record of the expression "good time," which Pepys found handy in 1666, and Carlyle, Trollope, and Stevenson did not disdain. "Now regarded as an Americanism," notes the editor. Good is another of the major articles of this number. "To the good," or with the balance on the right side, crops up in the *Spectator* in 1882. Goody-goody is referred to Samuel Smiles in 1871. The formal development of Good-by out of "God be with you" is very curious. God is another voluminous rubric; and the fact that in Gothic and Old Norse it always follows the neuter declension, leads to the remark that "the neuter substantive, in its original heathen use, would answer rather to Latin *numen* than to Latin *deus*." Gloat, though common in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, was unknown to Dr. Johnson; and in 1755, Glee, meaning 'merriment,' was to him a purely comic word. Milton's use of Gloom nine times for 'darkness' seems to have extinguished the sense for a time; it is next seized in 1717. The poets, by the way, let slip a sonorous word in the obsolete Governail, whether for 'rudder,' 'government,' 'reign,' 'state,' or 'behavior.' Golf, which most Americans sound with the *l*, the Scotch pronounce *gowf;* and *goff*, "somewhat fashionable in England, is an attempt to imitate this." Finally, as Shaksperian has got the better of Shaksperean, Goethian is here preferred to Goethean.

—Volume xxiv. of the Memoirs of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College consists of Samuel Garman's report on the deep-sea fishes obtained by the *Albatross* expedition under Alexander Agassiz in 1891 in the equatorial Pacific. The area dredged lay east of the Galapagos Archipelago and on a line from it to the peninsula of Lower California. The greatest

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depth that rewarded the dredge was 2,232 fathoms, and 900 out of more than 1,200 specimens of fishes secured were bathybial, representing 180 species, of which 85 per cent. were undescribed, as equatorial deep-sea collecting had hardly been attempted before 1891. The result disproves a theory of bipolar distribution, with absence of deep-sea fish from the torrid zone. The forms least capable of migration exhibit the greatest divergences in specific characters. In vertical distribution, temperature counts for much more than pressure, and the bottom having a light of its own (so that blind fish are rare), while the light from the surface reaches to 200 fathoms, the dark intermediate zone is one of passage, not of habitat. There appears to be evidence of a gradual upheaval of the Isthmus of Panama, permitting a commingling of shoal-water fish, while obstructing bathybial interchange. Such are some of Mr. Garman's interesting conclusions in his general introduction to the specific description of the collection. There follow essays on the lateral-canal system and on the distribution of genera (in detail; a valuable list of the known species of deep-sea fishes, showing range and locality; a bibliography, etc. The ninety-seven plates, beautifully executed and curious in a high degree, form a separate volume (xxvi.). The whole work is a model of its kind.

—The second volume of the 'Letters to Washington,' published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. for the Colonial Dames, opens with Washington on the frontiers of Virginia, in command of a force insufficient in numbers for the purpose of defence, and rendered less efficient by the want of pay, clothing, proper food, and a definite plan of operations. The Earl of Loudoun was echoing the complaints of Dinwiddie, and the latter was restive under the apparent obstinacy of the Virginian Colonel. Washington's position was thus a difficult one, for he was obliged to ward off criticism, to temper impracticable orders, and to feed and discipline his troops with little encouragement from his superiors. It was a wholesome training for future service, and taught him that patience and regard for his men which were to be exercised to the full in the wider sphere of the Revolution. These letters of complaint, of correction, and advice point to his wide interests and connections, but leave an impression of thankless labor, until Col. Bouquet came forward, and some design and energy was infused into the campaign. Washington had broken down in health under the pressure of responsibility thrown upon him, but he was again able to bear his share when a military leader was substituted for the good-intentioned but inept and ambitious Dinwiddie. The advice of his friends, to endure all, bore fruit, and he was counted among the advisers of the campaign. This volume closes with Washington's election to the House of Burgesses.

—Although the labor of the editor has been better bestowed and shows an improvement in accuracy over the first volume, some vagaries point to an absence of real appreciation of the responsibility of editorship. There is the same curious introduction of dashes, lines, and interlined words, meaningless in themselves and not illustrating the character of the writing. A half-dozen facsimiles of the letters, scattered through the volumes, would have cost less and been infinitely more suggestive and valuable. Not content with this minute following of the unessential form of the text, Mr. Hamilton adds (*sic*) or a note, assuring the reader of his accuracy. In the face of such parade, what is to be said of the use of Botomworth for Bosomworth, wherever the name is found, although a mere reference to the army list would have prevented such an error? Mr. Hamilton gives no good reason for omitting entire phrases from Dinwiddie's letters. The manuscript may be mutilated, but the letters have been printed by the Virginia Historical Society, and it would have been a simple matter to insert the missing words, thus saving the necessity of consulting both printings to obtain the sense. Where the writers of the letters have exercised so much freedom in spelling, it is somewhat rash to suggest error in the printing, but a few doubts are awakened. As examples may be named *county* on p. 182, which should probably be *country*; "*attain* to influence" on p. 346 is a misprint for *attend*; and a "sure and settled affair" on p. 140 is sometimes read as "*done*," etc. The instances of actual misprints could be multiplied, but the following may serve to show carelessness: Hackett for Halket; Atkins (more than once) for Atkin; Massapipi for Massassipi; and Tulither for Tuliken. Mr. Hamilton will still find occasion for greater care in his readings.

—'The Birds of Rhode Island,' by Reginald Heber Howe, jr., and Edward Sturtevant (Newport), is a privately printed book of about 100 pages, comprising a carefully annotated list of 291 species, with a review of previous works on the same subject, a full bibliography, and a chapter on the migration of birds in Rhode Island. It has been prepared with great care and thoroughness, and is in every way a credit to the authors. It is, moreover, the first attempt at a complete enumeration of the birds of this State. It is neatly printed on excellent paper, is very free from typographical errors, and, with its six half-tone plates, forms a very attractive and authoritative little volume. In the case of the rarer species, the authority for their occurrence is duly stated, each instance of capture being enumerated and duly accredited. As a rule, the annotations relate to the manner of occurrence of the species within the State, and give, in a general way, the dates of arrival and departure of the migratory birds. Three species, formerly more or less abundant, are recorded as extirpated, namely, the Heath Hen, the Wild Turkey, and the Passenger Pigeon. Ten species, most of which have been attributed to the State, have been excluded from the main list on the ground that there is not as yet conclusive evidence of their occurrence. This evinces a spirit of proper discrimination that cannot be too highly commended in the compilation of all similar lists, the value of which so largely depends upon the just separation of the known from the unknown.

—One of the most interesting of modern languages is Hindustani. Formed artificially in Akbar's camp, by the union of two radically different races, it has long lived as the tongue of soldier, bazaar-peddler, and servant, the *lingua franca* of Northern India, adopted perforce by the conquerors much as Saxon was contemptuously employed by the Normans. It has been a language changing from day to day, without literature of any kind to fix it, lasting as a whole but of ephemeral form. It is not only satisfactory to have caught at last this floating composite; the language and literature, such as it is beginning to be, furnish to the student a valuable parallel to the origin of other languages and literatures—for example, English and Albanian. Of the scanty literature that has arisen in the last few decades, very little has hitherto been available without a knowledge of Persian script, and even then what has been written has been difficult of access to those outside of India. A praiseworthy effort on the part of Mr. G. E. Ward goes far to relieve the embarrassment of such as have sought help in this regard. The number of "English ladies who desire to study Hindustani," for whom 'The Bride's Mirror' of Nazir Ahmad has been edited in Roman character with a full vocabulary and copious notes (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde), will probably be confined to those whom fate has taken to India, but the book will prove useful to the student of language everywhere. For the tale itself as literature (it is a novelette), not much can be said except that it is placid. Its beauty lies in the fact of its being literature, *terra firma*, one of the few islands in the ocean of this shifting speech. Mr. Ward has unfortunately thought out some original ideas on the subject of language in general, and embodied them in an Introduction remarkable for its daring ignorance, as an example of which may serve "Hindustani *êk* (one) derived from Persian *yak*," in evidence of the "fact" that all words must originally have begun with consonants. But we forgive Mr. Ward his Introduction in view of the excellent service he has done in providing a good primer for the study of Hindustani.

GOSSE'S LIFE OF DONNE.—I.

The Life and Letters of John Donne, Dean of St. Paul's. Now for the first time revised and collected by Edmund Gosse, Hon. M.A. of Trinity College, Cambridge, *Hon. LL.D. of the University of St. Andrews.* 2 vols., 8vo. London: Heinemann; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1899.

No trustworthy account of Donne's life existed before the Rev. Dr. Jessopp contributed a memoir of him to the Dictionary of National Biography. This, though brief, showed such acquaintance with the subject, and such appreciation of Donne's character, as to lead to the expectation that the volume entitled 'John Donne, sometime Dean of St. Paul's,' which Dr. Jessopp published in 1897, would fill the long existing want of a satisfactory biography of the famous poet and preacher. The expectation was only in part fulfilled, for the work was but a sketch, in which the author "dealt with Donne as one of the great leaders of religion in his time," leaving the other sides of his activity comparatively disregarded; and in his preface he resigned the hope "of issuing the life and letters of the great Dean" to Mr. Edmund Gosse, as the man in England best fitted to accomplish the task because of "his subtle sympathy with Donne's poetic genius." "It is from him," said Dr. Jessopp, "that any adequate and elaborate biography is to be looked for." It was consequently with

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great interest that the students of Donne anticipated the work of Mr. Gosse and welcomed its appearance.

The material which Dr. Jessopp had been collecting for fifty years he generously placed at Mr. Gosse's disposal. Other material was not wanting. There was, first, the delightful so-called "Life" by Walton, one of the most exquisite pieces of biography in the language, inspired with the enthusiasm of admiring devotion, but as inaccurate and insufficient in its account of Donne's career as it is tender in feeling and delightful in expression. Besides this, there was the confused collection of Donne's letters published by his son in 1651, while other letters were to be found in the 'Cabala' (1651), and in Sir Tobie Matthews's Collection, printed in 1660, and yet other letters and documents, published and unpublished, were to be gathered from various sources, and to be used in what Mr. Gosse calls "perhaps the most imposing task left to the student of Elizabethan and Jacobean literature," and the one "above all others dealing with this literature now required to be performed." While Dr. Jessopp's interest in Donne was mainly in him as a divine, Mr. Gosse declared his to be mainly in him as a poet, for "to me," he says, "Donne is quintessentially a poet." With Dr. Jessopp's aid and promised revision, there was reason for hoping that Mr. Gosse's work would afford an adequate and satisfactory Life of the poet and preacher.

The book has been received in England with a chorus of commendatory notices. The *Athenæum* of November 11, 1899, declared that

> "Mr. Gosse's subtle and solid study of John Donne justifies expectation. It will take rank at once, not merely among its author's happiest contributions to the finer understanding of English letters, but also among the all too few masterly biographies of subjects worthy to receive masterly treatment. . . . That anything written by Mr. Gosse upon this particular poet would be full of sympathy, the world knew well; but let it be said at once that the book has other qualities, the possible absence of which did, when it was first announced, fill us with some trepidation. It is a brilliant portrait; it is also a laborious and exact work of literary history. The complicated and disorderly material out of which it was necessarily constructed is full of pitfalls; and the little demon of inaccuracy, who occasionally takes his stand at Mr. Gosse's elbow, has before now tripped him up on this very topic. It would be too much to say that there are no slips and errors of fact in these two bulky volumes; but, after making a careful and detailed examination, we are convinced that, in proportion to the difficulty and minuteness of the work, the total number of desirable corrections is infinitesimally small."

The final words of the *Athenæum's* notice are: "We can only conclude by once more expressing our sense of the debt which English letters owes to Mr. Gosse for his faithful presentment of one of its most unparalleled and fascinating personalities." The *Spectator* of the same date, while finding some points of question in parts of Mr. Gosse's work, asserts that he has laid his readers "under an immense debt of gratitude," and "has rendered a permanent service to literature."

A large part, somewhat more than two hundred pages, of Mr. Gosse's volumes is taken up with a reprint of all the accessible letters of Donne. Few of the one hundred and twenty-nine published by Donne's son are dated, and they are printed in the original and hitherto only edition of them in almost inextricable confusion. Mr. Gosse has rendered good service in doing his best to present them in their due chronological order. Another large part of the volumes is occupied with an account and analysis of Donne's poems and other writings, and the student or lover of the poet is likely to turn to this portion of Mr. Gosse's work with especial interest, because much of Donne's poetry, while it serves to illustrate his strange career and stranger character, presents such difficulties as to require intelligent and appreciative exposition in order that its true merits may be understood—merits which led Ben Jonson, one of the most capable of critics, "to esteem John Donne the first poet in the world in some things."

In his second chapter Mr. Gosse deals with the earliest of Donne's poems, his Satires, of which the first four were probably written when Donne, born in 1573, was hardly more than twenty years old. They are extraordinary performances for a youth. Though rugged in versification, they show as a whole remarkable breadth and keenness of observation and maturity of thought. Mr. Gosse introduces what he has to say of them with an account of the contemporaneous prevalence of this species of poetry in several countries of Europe. He attributes it largely to the influence of Casaubon's lectures at Geneva on Persius, and declares that "it is probably not too much to say that the criticisms of Casaubon created satire, in its exact sense, as a poetic form both in England and France." But though Casaubon lectured upon Persius at some time between 1590 and 1600 at Geneva, his edition of Persius did not appear till 1605, and Mr. Gosse seems to believe that the report of his lectures was so effective in England as to induce not only Donne, but Hall and Marston, who also wrote their satires before 1600, to adopt this poetic form, and so effective in France as to determine the direction of the genius of Régnier, who, born in the same year with Donne, 1573, "tout jeune encore," says his biographer, "songeait à des satires." Such influence of a work of pure scholarship, like Casaubon's notes on Persius, previous to its publication, would be, if well certified, an unexampled fact in literary history. But Mr. Gosse attributes to Casaubon a still more remarkable effect upon European literature. He says: "The edition of Theophrastus which Casaubon was to revolutionize European belles-lettres by publishing in 1598, was still unknown." Casaubon's edition of Theophrastus was indeed a remarkable work; and its notes still remain of value to the student of Greek literature. It was not published in 1598, as Mr. Gosse says, but in 1592, and must then have begun to exert that marvellous revolutionary influence, which, so far as we are aware, has not hitherto been noted by any historian of literature, and is not referred to by Casaubon's most learned and sagacious biographer, the late Mark Pattison.

After general discourse on the Satires of the time, Mr. Gosse proceeds to speak more particularly of those of Donne. In giving an account of the first of them he says: "Incautiously leaving his chamber for the streets of London, Donne is pounced upon by a 'fine, silken, painted fool,' the typical society man, who attaches himself to his arm and sails along with his morose companion." This sentence is not correct. The Satire begins with Donne's bidding a "wild, uncertain" fellow of "refined manners, but ceremonious man," who has sought him in his chamber, to leave him with his books, and not urge him to go out. But finally yielding, he says:

> "Io!
> I shut my chamber door; and come, let's go."

Now they are in the street, and among the persons whom they meet are "fine, silken, painted fools." Mr. Gosse's inaccuracy in this special instance is of slight moment, but its significance will shortly become apparent.

There is no one of Donne's earlier poems which is of more interest as an illustration of his character than his third Satire. It is an impassioned discourse, addressed to an unknown person, on the need of getting and holding to religion.

> "Is not our mistress, fair Religion,
> As worthy of all our soul's devotion
> As virtue was in the first blinded age?"

Canst thou dare all dangers of sea and earth for mere repute of courage or for sake of gain, and yet, overcome by temptations of the devil, the world, and the flesh, wilt thou, O desperate coward, to thy real foes and His,

> "who made thee to stand
> Sentinel in His world's garrison, thus yield,
> And for forbid wars leave th' appointed field?"

Seek true religion.

But at this injunction the question arises, Where shall true religion be found? One seeks her at Rome, another at Geneva; another accepts her whom he finds at home; another abhors all because all cannot be good; another loves all as one. But thou must allow but one, and that one the right. Distinguish between Truth and Falsehood.

> "Believe me this,
> He's not of none nor worst, that seeks the best."
> "Doubt wisely; in strange way,
> To stand inquiring right is not to stray;
> To sleep or run wrong, is."

Strive, do hard deeds; seek hard knowledge; keep the truth which thou hast found; accept not thy religion at the command of Pope or King, for souls perish which rather trust the ordinances of men, though claimed to be of God, than God himself.

The whole satire is the utterance of intimate personal conviction; it is full of vigor of thought, no less than of expression, and it is of the more interest because its main conception, that religious truth was not to be found complete in the creed of any one church, was one of Donne's abiding convictions, as appears alike in certain of his letters and of his sermons.

Now concerning this important and significant poem, the general meaning of which is perfectly clear, Mr. Gosse makes the statement: "This is a diatribe against the extravagance and hypocrisy of the Religious Man!" and he further declares that it "is conducted in a darkness unusual even in the writings of Donne." He gives to it more than two pages, in which there is little but what, in the work of a writer of different reputation from that of Mr. Gosse, would be rightly called strange confusion and error.

The best known poems of Donne are his Lyrics. Like his Satires, they mostly belong to his earlier years—years before his marriage in 1601, when he was twenty-eight years old. They are full of the buoyancy, the fancy, the passionateness, the reckless-

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ness and insolence of youth. They have a general autobiographical worth, exhibiting Donne as an inconstant but ardent lover of more than one mistress, leading a life in which religion and morality had little share; cynical, of poetic temperament capable of high exaltations and deep depressions, of exquisite delicacy of sentiment and extreme coarseness of mind, according as the spiritual or the sensual elements of his passionate and unbalanced nature had temporary supremacy in the mood of the moment. A few of these lyrics are among the most admirable in the language. No other poet has surpassed Donne in giving exquisite expression to refined and, at the instant, sincere sentiment; but also, no other poet of rank has surpassed him in preference for conceits to simplicity, and of obscure subtilties to limpid clearness of expression, and none has sunk lower in grossness. At his best, Donne is one of the most delightful of poets; at his worst he is detestable.

Mr. Gosse devotes his third chapter to these lyrics, and the reader, recalling that to Mr. Gosse "Donne is quintessentially a poet," is interested to learn what he has to say of these, the completest expression of Donne's poetic faculty. But before many pages are read the discovery is made that, in dealing with these poems, Mr. Gosse would seem, so absolutely unfounded are many of his statements concerning their contents and meaning, not to have read them with even ordinary attention or intelligence. For instance, speaking of a little poem entitled "A Fever," Mr. Gosse says: "In 'A Fever' the mistress of the moment is ill, but it only amuses the lover. The malady is an excuse for a *feu de joie* of conceits; she may die of it for all he really cares." The first stanza is perhaps a sufficient refutation of the charge that his mistress's illness only amuses the lover:

> "Oh, do not die! for I shall hate
> All women so, when thou art gone,
> That thee I shall not celebrate
> When I remember thou wast one."

And the poem closes with the words,

> "For I had rather owner be
> Of thee one hour than all else ever,"

which hardly indicates that she might die for all he *really* cared.

Again, speaking of another of these lyrics, Mr. Gosse says:

"His sensitive heart is ingenious in self-torture, and to what extremities it still can fling him [*sic*] we read in 'The Blossom.' The lady of the moment has left him a week ago, and in three weeks more he is to meet her in London. In subtle, modulated verse his heart taunts and plagues him, for he no longer knows what he desires nor what he is. His previous adventures have made him cautious, even sceptical, and he will not frankly give way to this sweet, insidious hope. He apostrophizes his own trembling heart, which knows not whether to bide with him or to follow the new and desired mistress" (i. 75).

From this version of the poem let us turn to the poem itself. It begins with one of Donne's loveliest stanzas, in which, addressing the flower, he sets forth its ignorance of its own brief life, and says, "little think'st thou that I shall to-morrow find thee fallen or not at all." In the second stanza he addresses his own heart, that little thinks that to-morrow it must go on a journey with him, leaving her whom he loves. But in the third stanza the heart replies: "If you must go, what's that to me? Here I will stay. You go to friends, and, if your body go, what need your heart?" "Well, then," replies the poet, "stay here, but know

> " 'A naked, thinking heart, that makes no show,
> Is to a woman but a kind of ghost.
> How shall she know my heart, or, having none,
> Know thee for one?' "

And the poem closes with the direction of the poet to his heart: "Meet me at London, then, twenty days hence; I will give you there to another friend."

If the reader will now turn back to Mr. Gosse's words, he will see that what we called Mr. Gosse's version of this little poem should rather be called a perversion of it. It is inconceivable how, with the poem before him, he could thus misrepresent it. This is not carelessness, it is a procedure for which there are no words; nor is this a single instance of such procedure. One more must suffice. Mr. Gosse says of "The Apparition" that the "horror of his situation" overwhelms the poet "as he tosses between sleeping and waking." This is pure invention; the poem is a threat to his mistress that, when by her scorn he is dead, his ghost shall visit her and terrify her. The strangest part of Mr. Gosse's dealing with these poems is that he appears entirely unconscious of its nature, so that, after giving his false account of "The Apparition," he actually prints the poem itself, as if he fancied that it justified his statement concerning it.

Mr. Gosse has framed out of some of Donne's lyrics and elegies an ugly elaborate story of what he calls "a deplorable but eventful liaison" with a married woman of some social position. He declares that "we can reconstruct the story almost without danger of a mistake." But the reader will now not be surprised to learn that the narrative, as woven by Mr. Gosse, is a pure chimera, the result simply of his method of misreading the contents of the poems. The poems justify any ill conclusion in regard to Donne's illicit loves, but afford no material for a connected narrative of the course of any one of his love adventures.

THE ABORIGINES OF CENTRAL AUSTRALIA.

The Native Races of Central Australia. By Baldwin Spencer, M.A., and F. J. Gillen, Special Magistrate and Sub-Protector of the Aborigines, Alice Springs, South Australia. The Macmillan Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 671.

Regarded from an ethnological point of view, this is one of the most satisfactory works recently published. In fact, so thoroughly is it done that it is probably within bounds to assert that a careful study of its pages will make us as well acquainted with the natives of Central Australia—their social and political organization, manners and customs, arts and industries, traditions, myths, rites, and ceremonies—as we are with tribes that are nearer home, and with whose institutions we are supposed to be more familiar.

Important as such thorough investigations are at all times, they have, in this case, an added interest for us in so far as they necessitate a radical change in the opinion we have hitherto held of the Australian's position in the scale of progress. Instead of grovelling in the lowest depths of savagery, as we have been accustomed to picture him, it is now in order to assign him a place which (except, perhaps, in the development of a few industries) is but little if any inferior to that occupied by our own Indians. Certainly, in the capacity he has shown for social and political organization, he has nothing to fear from a comparison with his savage compeers here or elsewhere; and in everything that relates to his intercourse with his neighbors (p. 32), and with other tribes, to say nothing of the consideration with which he treats his women and children (pp. 50 *et seq.*), and especially the old and infirm, he is not behind, if, indeed, he is not, mentally and morally, somewhat in advance of the standard by which we assume to measure his progress.

Of course, this is but another way of saying that these tribes, like savages everywhere, have the virtues and vices of their condition, and, consequently, that resemblances more or less striking are to be expected in their customs, institutions, and mode of life generally. This, we need not add, is apparent even to the most casual reader; and yet, in spite of the uniformity that is to be found at the base of most of their institutions, there are differences existing, not only between tribes that are far apart, but among those in close proximity to each other, so numerous and so pronounced in character as to call for an explanation. Take, for example, the question of descent (pp. 34, 60, 70, etc.), and we find that in some of these tribes it is in the paternal, and in others in the maternal, line, and that "it is not yet possible to say which of the two methods is the more widely practised" or the more primitive. So, too, in regard to the system of organization known as the totemic, and to some of the obligations and limitations to which it gives rise. Among the Urabunna, for instance, totems (p. 114) govern marriage, and children belong to the mother's totem; while among their next neighbors—the Arunta—totems (pp. 116, 121, etc.) have nothing to do with marriage, though the tribe, like all central Australians, is divided (p. 55) into two exogamous intermarrying groups; and a child's totem, owing to a belief (pp. 127, 202, 512, 523, etc.) in what may be termed the theory of reincarnation, "will sometimes (p. 115) be found to be the same as that of the father, sometimes the same as that of the mother, and not infrequently it will be different from that of either parent." Other differences there are (pp. 73, 167, 467) in the privileges and restrictions that belong to this particular system of organization, just as there are (pp. 35, 151, 228, 305) in some of the ceremonies connected with the rite of initiation, and in a few of their arts (pp. 596, 611, etc.) and industries. It is unnecessary, however, to refer to them in detail, as they are one and all believed to be of degree and not of kind, and hence do not indicate a difference in race. On this point our authors hold very decided opinions, for, after telling us (pp. 54, 117, etc.), that "this great continent was most probably peopled by men who entered from the north," they add that

"The most striking fact in regard to them at the present day is, that, over the whole continent, so far as is known, we can detect a community of customs and social organizations sufficient to show that all the tribes inhabiting various parts are the offspring of ancestors who, prior to their migrating in various directions across the continent, and thus giving rise to groups separated to a great extent from one another by physical barriers, already practised certain customs and had the germs of an organization which

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has been developed along different lines in different localities."

In other words, they hold, and, as we think, justly, that the fact of the existence of a custom, or of a form of organization, among two or more tribes is a proof of uniformity that cannot be gainsaid by differences that may have supervened in the way such a custom or system is observed and followed.

Among the other questions that are here discussed and have for us a special interest, may be mentioned the fact that, in declaring their belief (pp. 56, 59, 108) in the former existence of group marriage among these people, our authors bear out Morgan's theory on this point, though the contrary opinion, as held by McLennan, Curr, and others, has, of late, been much in vogue. We are also told, somewhat to our surprise, that "marriage by capture [pp. 103 and 554], which has been so frequently described as characteristic of Australian tribes, is the very rarest way in which a Central Australian secures a wife," thus, of course, doing away with the account, once familiar to most of us, of a band of savages lying in wait by a waterhole against the coming of the lubras for water, when such of them as were required were seized, "and, if they attempted to make any resistance, they were struck down insensible and dragged off." So, too, contrary to what we have hitherto been taught, we are now to learn that the practice of sub-incision could not have been instituted for the purpose of preventing or even checking procreation, for the simple reason (p. 264) that it does nothing of the kind. This is proved by the fact that "every man without exception throughout the central area, in all tribes in which the rite is practised, is sub-incised. . . . He must be before he is allowed to take a wife, and infringement of this rule would simply mean death to him if found out." Infanticide, not sub-incision, is said to be the explanation of the small size of the average family, and it is resorted to "not with any idea at all of regulating the food supply, so far as the adults are concerned, but simply from the point of view that, if the mother is suckling one child, she cannot properly provide food for another, quite apart from the question of carrying two children about." Powerful as this practice must have been in keeping down the population, it was probably not as destructive in its effects as was the belief in sorcery. Among them, for instance (and the same thing will apply to our Indians), "there is no such thing as belief in natural death; however old or decrepit a man or woman may be when this takes place, it is at once supposed that it has been brought about by the magic influence of some enemy, and in the normal condition of the tribe the death of one individual is followed by the murder of some one else [pp. 48, 476], who is supposed to be guilty of having caused the death."

In an appendix (C) we have a table of the bodily measurements of twenty men and ten women, the majority of whom belonged to the Arunta tribe. Limiting ourselves to the men and to what is termed the cephalic index, we find (p. 44) that it ranges from 68.8, the extreme of dolichocephalism, through all the different degrees of mesaticephalism to 80.55, which is just within the limit of subbrachycephalism. As the group of which this tribe forms one has been, for "long ages" (p. 54), "locally isolated" and "shut off from contact with other peoples," the variation here noted would seem to show that there is practically no limit to the differences that may be found in the head-form of a people of relatively pure breed; and, consequently, that the cephalic index is of little or no value as an indication of race.

In conclusion it may not be out of place to call attention to the fact that, rude as is the Australians' code of morals, "their conduct is governed by it [pp. 8, 12, 46], and any known breaches are dealt with both surely and severely." Especially is this true of the infractions of any regulation governing the intercourse between the sexes. These are punished by death (p. 110) or in some other severe manner, and, curiously enough, the reason assigned for such severity is (pp. 99, 100, etc.) that the offence is against the tribe, and "has no relation to the feelings of the individual." In thus transferring (p. 15) the duty of punishment from the individual to the tribe, these people may be said to have reached a level of development not yet attained by some of us who are rated much higher in the scale of progress. Generosity, we may add, is one of their leading features (p. 48), as it is always their custom to give a share of their food, or of what they may possess, to their fellows, and particularly (p. 51) to the children and to the aged and infirm, who are unable to provide for themselves. Of course, there were times of scarcity, and possibly they were frequent here, owing to the inhospitable nature of the soil. But when times are favorable the "black fellow," so we are told (p. 53, 54), is lighthearted, lives in the present, and gives no thought as to what the morrow may bring forth.

"At night time men, women, and children gather round the common camp-fires, talking and singing their monotonous chants hour after hour, until one after the other they drop out of the circle, going off to their different camps, and then at length all will be quiet, except for the occasional cry of a child who, as not seldom happens, rolls over into the fire and has to be comforted or scolded into quietness. . . . Granted always that his food supply is abundant, it may be said that the life of the Australian native is, for the most part, a pleasant one."

LYON PLAYFAIR.

Memoirs and Correspondence of Lyon Playfair, First Baron Playfair of St. Andrews. By Wemyss Reid. Harper & Bros. 1899. 8vo, pp. 487.

The ambition of Lyon Playfair was at first directed towards scientific eminence. A pupil of two of the greatest chemists that a man born in 1818 could have for masters, Graham and Liebig, he made several discoveries, as all chemists do. The chief of these was that of the nitroprussides. A coffee-colored solution is formed by adding nitric acid to ferrocyanide of potassium, and something peculiar and interesting was known to be contained in it. To neutralize the acid and isolate the resulting salts was no great feat, especially since they yield magnificent crystals. Had Playfair gone on to elucidate the constitution of their acid, he would have taken a considerable step; but this he failed to do. Apart from this, his two chief researches were carried on in collaboration, the one with Bunsen, the other with Joule—men of such fertility that one naturally attributes the main ideas of the work to them. One at least of Playfair's own theories—that the specific gravities of the elements are proportional to different powers of their atomic weights—is downright absurd. On the whole, the evidence is that his purely scientific genius was not extraordinary. That this was the opinion of Faraday is indicated by a letter in which, wishing to recommend Playfair, he limits himself to testifying that "you are able to expound the truths of experimental science in a clear, logical, audible, and to me satisfactory manner."

On the other hand, statesmen like Sir Robert Peel and Prince Albert were struck at their first interviews with him by the evidences of his practical resource, tact, *coup d'œil*, power of elaborating a workable plan, and energy; and, having once tried him in those tasks where physical science and the art of government overlap, would never thereafter allow him leisure for the pursuit of pure science. Thus he was carried in spite of himself into the business for which he seemed born. The ease with which he surmounted difficulties, both on great occasions and on little ones, was pretty to see. "I arrived," he says, in the fragmentary autobiography upon which Mr. Reid builds, "at Kranichstein on Sunday morning. The Prince and his visitors having gone to chapel, and also the servants, Princess Alice kindly remained behind, in order to welcome me on my arrival. While we were conversing, a note came from Prince Louis to say that he would bring the Lutheran minister to the midday dinner. This seemed to disturb the Princess, who told me that her table was small, and that there was absolutely no room for an additional guest, and as all the servants were at church, the table could not be relaid." What could the Princess expect Playfair to do about that? But people had learned to feel that there was no kind of difficulty which this politico-scientist was not fit to cope with. "I reminded her that she used to entertain me at the Swiss Cottage at Osborne when she was a child, and that I knew she could lay a table better than servants. She was pleased with the suggestion, and we went to the dining-room, took all the things from the table, put in a new leaf, and rearranged everything before the party returned to the house." A man of such American efficiency could not but be liked in palaces; and a little incident is as good evidence as a great one of his practical resource.

Feats of nice tact are not to be explained to all sorts of readers in a few words. Suffice it to say that functions were continually devolving upon Playfair to exercise which, without disastrous friction, was a task harder than ever the guardian of a fairy princess set to semi-miraculous suitor. But Playfair had the art of applying a little drop of lubricant good sense just where it would insinuate itself into the closest bearing. He usually went straight to the persons from whom antagonism was likely to develop. When the Great Exhibition of 1851 was preparing, an executive committee was first appointed by the Society of Arts, and as this did not succeed in executing much, it was supplemented by a Royal Commission of politicians. Still the manufacturers hung back, and at last Playfair was appointed "Special Commissioner," with powers just large enough to insure perpetual jealousies, but not large enough to make these jealousies unimportant. Sir Henry Cole had been the

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mainspring of the Exhibition from first to last. The reminiscences contain the following narrative:

"When I joined the Executive of the Exhibition, Sir Henry Cole scarcely knew me, and, like the other members, was naturally displeased that I was placed in a position of confidence superior to theirs. On the second day after my appointment I met Sir Henry Cole in Whitehall, at the door of the Home Office. He told me frankly that he was going to see the Secretary of State to resign his connection with the Exhibition, and that his letter of resignation was then in his pocket. I took his arm and walked up and down Whitehall. On asking him whether he believed the ship was sinking, and that the Exhibition would be a total failure, he frankly admitted that he did, as the state of indifference of the manufacturing districts rendered failure almost certain. I then urged that, as he was the real pilot of the vessel, it was a wrong act to desert the sinking ship. The country could be aroused to the importance of the undertaking, and my work could be well separated from his, for I intended to visit the chief manufacturing centres in order to create a public sentiment in its support. Our conversation was mutually satisfactory, and we walked to the Exhibition office together, and his letter of resignation was destroyed. Had the accidental meeting not taken place, the Great Exhibition would never have been held, for its mainspring would have been broken. After this interview, if jealousies still continued, none were ever shown, for all the members of the Executive worked loyally to bring the undertaking to a successful issue."

The excellence of Playfair's *coup d'œil* was shown in this same business. That he should go straight to the manufacturers was only what his invariable habit dictated. But that he should have seen, in the midst of a confused state of affairs, that what was requisite to bring the manufacturers into hearty coöperation was simply to present to them a new classification of the objects of the Exhibition, such that each of them should clearly comprehend the parts that concerned him—this was what nobody else but Playfair had had the perspicacity to see, or was even able to see after it was pointed out, until the result proved his insight. The same affair illustrated also Playfair's capacity for elaborating a feasible plan. For he had not only to construct a detailed classification in which everything offered for exhibition should find a suitable section that seemed to ask particularly for that very thing, but he had so to construct it that the manufacturers would approve of it; that the Prince, who was wedded to a highly German classification of his own (in which most things either had no place or several places), would yield to it; and, most difficult of all, such that French and other foreign commissioners would surrender their own prepossessions, and cordially accept the new arrangement. But Playfair had all the elements of his problem so thoroughly studied and well in hand that, when it came to the execution, there was not a serious hitch.

As for his energy, we can compare it to nothing but that of a terrier in a room full of rats, with such incredible swiftness did the wickedest difficulties get their quietus under his action. It cannot be better evidenced than by enumerating say a dozen of the main achievements of his life. First, he greatly stimulated scientific agriculture in England by translating Liebig's books and conducting Liebig himself through the country; second, he considerably reduced the death-rate in England by his activity upon the Commission on the Health of Towns; third, if it had not been for him, the Great Exhibition of 1851 would certainly have been a failure, and probably no great international exposition would have been held—to the immense loss of material civilization; fourth, the whole science department, at least, of the establishments at South Kensington is entirely due to his management, together with the School of Science; fifth, he gave the initial impetus to technical education in England; sixth, the regulations of 1874 for filling places in the British Civil Service are due to him; seventh, he invented post-cards in 1870, and caused them to be brought into use; eighth, he considerably furthered first steps towards realization of the great ideal of general international arbitration; ninth, he was instrumental in bringing the Venezuelan imbroglio to a peaceful termination, which was finally effected by the adoption of his suggestions; tenth, he determined the choice of coal used by British steamers; eleventh, he saved the causes of vaccination and vivisection; twelfth, he stopped the cattle plague in England by severe measures. This is not all he did, but we stop the list at a dozen achievements.

At the close of the Exhibition, Playfair received a gold medal, the companionship of the Bath, and the office of Gentleman Usher in the household of the Prince Consort. The Exhibition produced a profit of £190,000, and the question arose what should be done with this money and with the building. It was the Prince's idea that an institution should be founded. The House of Commons granted £150,000 additional, and the South Kensington estates were purchased. Playfair now made a tour of Northern Europe and Austria in order to study their educational systems, with special reference to science and technology. Coming home, he made a crusade in favor of what is called in England "technical education." This he did for the sake of its effect on British industry and civilization rather than for the young men to be educated; and the benefit near and remote to Great Britain at large has been immense. In 1858 he was appointed Professor of Chemistry in the University of Edinburgh, but he was so weighed down with duties imposed upon him by Government that he accomplished little purely scientific work. He did a great deal for educational methods there. In 1868 he was elected member of Parliament for the University of Edinburgh, being a Liberal representing a Conservative constituency; and he gave up his professorship. In 1873 he was made Postmaster-General. In 1874 the Gladstone Ministry went out, and Disraeli appointed Playfair Chairman of the Civil-Service Commission, which established the new system called the "Playfair Scheme." In 1875 he was influential in the selection of Hartington as leader of the Opposition, though he would have preferred Forster. In 1877 he first visited the United States, and the next year married a young lady of Boston. In 1880 he was tendered the post of first whip, but declined it, unwisely. He was appointed Chairman of the Committee of the Whole, as we should call it, and was obliged to bear the brunt of the *clôture* odium. In 1883 he resigned and was made Knight Commander of the Bath, or rather he supposed he had been, for he neglected the formality of receiving the accolade, so that he never was legally Sir Lyon Playfair. In 1885 he was elected to Parliament from South Leeds. In 1886 he was appointed Vice-President of the Council, practically Minister of Education in the House of Commons. In 1887 he headed a deputation who presented a memorial in favor of general arbitration to President Cleveland. In 1892 he was raised to the peerage, and made Lord-in-Waiting. In 1895 he received the honor of the Grand Cross of the Bath. He died in May, 1898.

It is delightful to read the biography of a man to whom life must have afforded a constant series of surprises to find himself so much cleverer than he had supposed. No wonder he was gay, sunny, sociable, entertaining, and affectionate. It is to be remarked that his peculiar good fortune never corrupted him in any way; for certainly a little healthy conceit is no fault, but a necessary quality. Without something like this, Playfair could not have passed through two periods of extreme unpopularity with such perfect equanimity as he did. The Life by Mr. Wemyss Reid brings out Playfair's character quite thoroughly, considering that it is one of those biographies which are prepared with the coöperation of intimate relatives of the subject. No little skill in the art of bookmaking has been put forth upon it. It is crammed with Playfair's amusing anecdotes, and is altogether a difficult book to drop. The index is thoroughly well executed.

The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Collected and edited by Paul Leicester Ford. Vol. X. and last. 1816-1826. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

Mr. Ford himself will, we believe, be the last person to reproach us with delay in noticing the completion of his severe, yearlong task, which he has already well forgotten, seeking pastures new wherein to frolic with his historic imagination, and winning a multitude of readers who will never resort to his precious Jefferson volumes.

In this final instalment the veteran statesman links himself with the next generation, now gone from the stage, by his panicky reprobation (January, 1816) of the Rev. Lyman Beecher for his "plan to establish *'a qualified religious instructor* over every thousand souls in the United States,'" the South not excepted. This he calls "the most bold and impudent stride New England has ever made in arrogating an ascendancy over the rest of the Union." But Jefferson could neither foresee Dr. Beecher's futile endeavor to suppress anti-slavery discussion at Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, nor his daughter's great tract of 'Uncle Tom.' In 1825 he professes to Fanny Wright his interest in her dreams for the abolition of slavery, but his views on gradual emancipation with colonization, elsewhere expressed, show him (like Henry Clay subsequently) unwilling to abate one jot of the slave-owner's pecuniary title to his property in human beings. There is also a single mention of Webster (December, 1824), whose visit to Monticello is recorded in his 'Private Correspondence,' which Mr. Ford fitly reproduces. Jefferson correctly thought Webster "likely to become of great weight in our government."

It is, however, the Spanish question which gives the more striking modernity to these letters. Jefferson had no doubt, in February, 1816, considering our sympathy with the revolted South American colonies, "that a war is brewing between us and Spain."

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But when the bloody struggle had gone on five years longer he thought it demonstrated that "these people were not yet sufficiently enlightened for self-government," and had better patch up an accommodation with the mother country "until they shall be sufficiently trained, by education and habits of freedom, to walk safely by themselves." But he adds, with a momentary glimpse of the *fin de siècle* Jingo, "You see, my dear sir, how easily we prescribe for others a cure for their difficulties, while we cannot cure our own."

Meanwhile (1823) Cuba looms up as "a speck of war to us," and Jefferson anticipates with complacency the spectacle of England and the United States exercising a joint protectorate over the island. "She joins us too in a guarantee of the independence of Cuba, with the consent of Spain, and removes thus this bone of contention between us." Cuba would then be "nearly as valuable to us as if it were our own." However, on learning that England's interests there are not "quite as strong as those of the United States," he "must retract an opinion founded on an error of fact," and his standing dread of England returns in force. He has "ever looked on Cuba as the most interesting addition which could ever be made to our system of states," yet would accept its independence "with peace and the friendship of England, rather than its association at the expense of war and her enmity."

The numerous references to slavery are the most suggestive (and melancholy) portions of this correspondence. Jefferson is too old to take an active part in removing the evil, and in 1817 has "not perceived the growth of this disposition in the rising generation, of which [he] once had sanguine hopes." When the Missouri agitation arose, he saw only the Southern side, considering the issue sectional and partisan; "not a moral question, but one merely of power." "All know that permitting the slaves of the South to spread into the West will not add one being to that unfortunate condition, . . . will dilute the evil everywhere, and facilitate the means of getting finally rid of it"—with a fling at "the noisy pretenders to exclusive humanity." His scheme of emancipation and forcible expatriation (why is it that the follies of pro-slavery philanthropists are forgotten in decrying the immediatism of Northern abolitionists?), he was aware, involved "some constitutional scruples" such as he was an adept in swallowing. "The separation of infants from their mothers, too, would produce some scruples of humanity. But this would be straining at a gnat and swallowing a camel." Never did it enter his thoughts to ask consent of the freedmen to deport them. While the slaves numbered (in 1824) a million and a half, he thought them within control for colonization. "But six million (which a majority of those now living will see them attain), and one million of these fighting men, will say, 'We will not go.'"

The World's Orators. Vol. I.: Orators of Ancient Greece. Edited by G. C. Lee. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

This is the first of a series of ten volumes designed to present to English readers such masterpieces of oratory, in chronological order, as shall "indicate the development of the different schools of oratory from the classic periods down to the present day." That this is as a whole a very ambitious undertaking its promoters appear to be entirely conscious. Whether a series that devotes three volumes to the Orators of America, two to the Orators of England, and one to the Orators of Greece can be said to demonstrate their sense of proportion, is quite another question. Meanwhile we are concerned only with their conception of representative Greek oratory, and the use to which it may be put in the form in which they offer it to the reader. The selection of Greek masterpieces of rhetoric from Homer to Deinarchus has been, we should say, wisely made. Where fresh translations were called for, as in the case of Gorgias and Antiphon, Mr. Mitchell Carroll has supplied an adequate version. Where standard translations existed they have been used. The introductory essay, by Mr. Carroll, gives a clear account of the chief characteristics and tendencies of Greek oratory. The notes affixed to the several orations provide the essential facts about their authors.

Naturally there is, in all this, very little room for comment. Granted the need for such a work, it was hardly possible to go wrong in putting together standard English translations of Greek orators, and introducing the collection with a few well-chosen words. But before one is committed to applaud the appearance of nine more volumes of the same size, one may fairly stop to ask who will read them, and why. It will be recognized that the interest of the present volume, at any rate, is purely academic. A modern orator trains his natural gift by contact with men, not books; or, if he seeks to improve his style by the study of oratorical masterpieces, he will turn to Burke, or, more probably, to some orator of his own generation. We cannot imagine a politician about to speak on the navy estimates looking up Demosthenes "On the Navy Boards" for a tip, nor Krüger diving into the "Philippics" for invectives against the British Government. On the other hand, the student of literary form knows well enough that he cannot get anything more than the merest adumbration of the style of Demosthenes from the best possible translation. The ideas may be faithfully represented, the rhythm of the periods retained, but one might as well try to illustrate on a piano the technique of a great violinist as attempt to convey in English the effects gained for the Greek ear by the finest Greek prose. As for such a writer as the Sophist Gorgias, whose thoughts are all in pairs, who balances his ideas in carefully planned antitheses, it is quite as impossible to reproduce his ingenuity by the instrument of another language. It is, then, the historical interest that will be served by such a series. To historical students, or to students who wish to observe the development of rhetoric and the subject-matter of oratory throughout the ages, such a series should prove most useful. Of course, a thorough student would have to supplement by deeper researches such a view of Greek oratory as he obtains in this volume, which cannot pretend to be exhaustive.

The general get-up of the book is excellent. The type, which at first bewilders the eye, wins favor as one grows used to it. The proof-reading has been well done. On p. 80, for Shuckburg read Shuckburgh. The Latinized "Hercules" is out of place in a translation from the Greek, now that "Heracles" is well established in English.

Darwinism and Lamarckism, Old and New. Four Lectures by Frederick Wollaston Hutton, F.R.S., etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899. 12mo, pp. 226.

To improve the prevailing estimate of Darwinism appears to be the aim of this essay. From the matter as taught by Darwin it puts aside some portions, modifies others, and in various ways attempts reduction of the general confusion enveloping it. The purpose is a firmer establishment; the result falls short of what is worked for with such zeal and energy, and is negative. The author concedes that Darwinism and the modern theory of evolution are two very different things, but protests the statement that Darwin's "flock has scattered, and that the great theory he so successfully reared is in danger of falling to pieces." The doctrine in this book varies from that of either Darwin or Wallace; it is less complex and more consistent. Pangenesis is dropped entirely, part of sexual selection is cut away, and artificial selection is thrown out as radically different, regardless of the fact that with it goes much of the so-called proof of natural selection. The following summary is made up of definitions by the author:

The new Darwinism is natural selection, to which methods of isolation have been added. Natural selection is at present the only known efficient cause of progress; it is a theory of the origin of species and higher groups by the preservation of variations; it is merely a process of picking out useful variations, no matter how they have arisen; it is also a method for the evolution of adaptive characters only, because the elimination is for the benefit of those who remain—that is, for the benefit of the selected; it is a selection taking place, as it were, by and among the individuals themselves. It is an internal principle, and may be called intrinsic selection; in all cases it must be a struggle with death as the penalty of being vanquished, because, without elimination by death, there can be no selection and no isolation. It is a powerful cause of divergence between different species and genera, but cannot by itself originate divergent evolution; it is not so much natural selection as natural elimination, for it works not by the survival of the fittest, but by the destruction of the least fit. It can propel a species only in one direction unless isolation steps in and divides it into smaller groups. In combination with inheritance and variation, it is cumulative, but (and this is important to notice) it is cumulative only by selecting the best varieties of each generation. It cannot make one species divide into two, but actually prevents such a thing from coming about. It can hardly come into play in the early stages of a variation, or when competition is checked by physical isolation; it isolates beneficial variations by killing off the others. The principle of selection does not necessarily lead to improvement—it cannot by itself originate or improve; if, however, an improved variety appears, the improvement is at once made permanent and diffused through the species by the action of selection. It has no power if the individuals are not competing, and it is in no way con-

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cerned with the origin of the differences—the differences must be there before selection can act. Finally, it does not explain all the changes that have taken place, but only a certain number of them.

The arguments in support of this doctrine are suppositive, assumptive, and prophetic. Their style is familiar:

"Take the evolution of the eye. Suppose that, in a number of eyeless individuals, the nerve of some portion of the skin of one of them was slightly sensitive to light. This one, being able to distinguish day from night, would have an advantage over other individuals in escaping its enemies, and thereby it will be one of those that survive, on the principle of selection; and in the next generation there will be, by the law of inheritance, several individuals endowed with this same power of distinguishing day from night. These, in their turn, will survive; and at last all the individuals of the species will have the same faculty. This will be the result of selection; but selection did not make the nerves of the first individuals sensitive to light, and it is powerless to improve the nerves of the offspring; what it can do is to bring all the individuals up to the level of the best."

"The individuals that die will usually be those that are least adapted for living—either for procuring food or for escaping enemies."

The individuals upon which, in times of severe competition, death from starvation, enemies, diseases, or accidents, will fall heaviest are the young, the laden females, and the old. The competing individual in the foregoing is supposed to be superior to all competitors at all periods of his existence; infancy, temporary weakness, age are all supposed away. The field has been considerably narrowed, but the theory is still "in the air"; the absolute essentials in the origin of species still appear to be variation, use, heredity, and some form of isolation. It is not yet satisfactorily proved that selection is a necessity, or that, when existing, it is other than a result of accidental conditions. Useful and beneficial in the employ of Darwinians are synonymous. Had Darwinism originally appeared as now, it would have been recognized as only a modification of Lamarck's theory.

Lamarckism is given equal space in the title; it occupies about a fifth of the discussion, and is not handled at all as if the author loved it. He is making a case against it, and it is to be expected that the mention of facts favoring the Lamarckian contention may be followed by something like this: "But many of these, perhaps all, can be also explained by natural selection, and furnish, therefore, unsatisfactory evidence"; or, "As it is useful, we cannot doubt that it has been developed by natural selection." From the text we do not get a very clear idea of Lamarck's theory, either as left by its founder, or as accepted by most Americans. Approximately, the theory of variation and of the origin of varieties, species, and higher groups preferred in this country may be stated thus: Change in the condition of animals and plants brings about changes in their needs, which, in turn, compel changes in the efforts to satisfy them; persisted in, these changed efforts become habitual, and induce individual variations to harmonize with effort and use in the organs affected; a tendency to such variation, and in time to some extent the variations, are transmitted by heredity; and thus, the variations accumulating from generation to generation, varieties are formed which ultimately become species or higher groups with or without the aid of isolation. How this agrees with the teachings of Lamarck may be seen by the following from his statements:

"Tout changement un peu considérable et ensuite maintenu dans les circonstances où se trouve chaque race d'animaux, opère en elle un changement réel dans leurs besoins; tout changement dans les besoins des animaux nécessite pour eux d'autres actions pour satisfaire aux nouveaux besoins et, par suite, d'autres habitudes; tout nouveau besoin nécessitant de nouvelles actions pour y satisfaire, exige de l'animal qui l'éprouve, soit l'emploi plus fréquent de telle de ses parties dont auparavant il faisoit moins d'usage, ce qui la développe et l'agrandit considérablement, soit l'emploi de nouvelles parties que les besoins font naître insensiblement en lui, par des efforts de son sentiment intérieur."

"Or, tout changement acquis dans un organe par une habitude d'emploi suffisante pour l'avoir opéré, se conserve ensuite par la génération, s'il est commun aux individus qui, dans la fécondation, concourent ensemble à la reproduction de leur espèce. Enfin, ce changement se propage, et passe ainsi dans tous les individus qui se succèdent et qui sont soumis aux mêmes circonstances, sans qu'ils aient été obligés de l'acquérir par la voie qui l'a réellement créé."

"Les besoins, toujours occasionnés par les circonstances, et ensuite les efforts soutenus pour y satisfaire, ne sont pas bornés dans leurs résultats, à modifier, c'est-à-dire, à augmenter ou diminuer l'étendue et les facultés des organes; mais ils parviennent aussi à déplacer ces mêmes organes, lorsque certains de ces besoins en font une nécessité."

Because adherents have usually kept propositions of their own in the foreground, and because opponents, to secure standing for their theories, have found it necessary to detract from it as much as possible, Lamarckism has not received the attention to which it is entitled.

Cambridge Compositions. Edited by R. D. Archer-Hind and R. D. Hicks. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

Nova Anthologia Oxoniensis. Edited by Robinson Ellis and A. D. Godley. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1899.

Florilegium Latinum. Edited by F. St. J. Thackeray and E. D. Stone. London and New York: John Lane. 1899.

In the face of all that we hear about the passing of Greek and Latin verse-making, these three volumes are good evidence that men are still left in England who are masters of that art of graceful expression and correctness of style. If the art is really to become a lost one, here are permanent records of the proficiency which the end of the nineteenth century has reached in it. As one turns these pages and notes everywhere extraordinary felicities of language and evidences of perfect familiarity with classic idiom, the wonder grows that a school capable of such sympathy with the style and form of the Greek and Roman poets should do so little, comparatively speaking, that is convincing in the emendation and elucidation of their texts. Perhaps this is because the English have made verse-composition too much of a fetish, stopping to worship it as something adorable in itself instead of proceeding to use its lessons as part of the equipment of the philologian.

To the student the principal interest in these volumes lies, we think, in the opportunity they offer for comparisons between the treatment, by different scholars, of the same English originals. Thus, for Greek verse, with the Oxford volume, pages 22 and 254, compare Cambridge, pages 336 and 246; for Latin verse, with 'Florilegium,' pages 108 and 160, compare Cambridge, pages 90 and 108. Again, it is interesting to see how Prof. Butcher's Latin version of Wordsworth's "Ode on Intimations of Immortality" in the 'Florilegium' (page 260) differs from his version of the same poem in Cambridge (page 18), and again to compare with these two the version of the Provost of Oriel, in Oxford (page 7). Thus, for

"Heaven lies about us in our infancy.
Shades of the prison-house begin to close
Upon the growing Boy:
But he beholds the light, and whence it flows,
He sees it in his joy."

Butcher writes:

Caeli circumvolat annos
lux teneros; puero mox carceris ingruit horror
crescenti, tamen is lucemque agnoscit et unde
derivatur, ovans.

And Monro:

Vivimus infantes haud parvo lumine divum:
paullatim urgeri tenebris et carcere caeco
incipiunt pueri; tamen illi luminis oras
dispiciunt, fontemque ipsum, gaudentque tuendo.

Then Prof. Campbell's Greek iambics (Oxford, page 20) and Mr. Greene's Latin elegiacs ('Flor.,' page 19) from Sir Henry Wotton's "Happy Life" afford another fruitful opportunity for comparative study of the two types. Of a different sort is Prof. Hardie's version, in the style of Horace's satires, of Thackeray on "Literary Snobs" (Oxford, page 51); we wish we had space for this, since it reads more like real Latin than almost any other attempt in the whole collection. For, as a rule, the chief value of a "copy of verses" (to any but the writer thereof) lies in the warning it conveys against the utter inadequacy of translation (whether from English to a foreign tongue or vice versa) to preserve the life and essence of the work which it strives to represent. We gayly translate from the ancient languages into English, but when a man meets with one of his favorite English poems made over into Greek or Latin (even by a master hand), the tables are turned, and he begins to understand how unsatisfactory even the best translation from the classics into English must always be. Plenty of proof of this may be found in these collections. For instance, here are Sapphics by Prof. Postgate (Cambridge, page 41):

Sole qua fulgent propriore terrae
alta desertae, digitis reduncis
haeret ad rupem, mediumque cingunt
caerula caeli.
Desuper rugas simulante lapsu
ire Neptunum specula superbus
respicit summa; ruit inde praeceps
fulminis instar.

What was the English for them?

A Manual of Coaching. By Fairman Rogers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

This elaborate work of Mr. Rogers's is a valuable addition to the sporting library, and will appeal particularly to lovers of four-in-hand driving. It is profusely and one may say practically illustrated, showing that the author has been a very close student of his subject and a keen enthusiast as well. Coaching history has been treated at length, and while Mr. Rogers quotes freely from the older authorities on the subject, he nevertheless has introduced an element of completeness, as it were, which

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is most agreeable. Beginning at the bottom, the construction of roads is intelligently discussed; and so on, from the tires of the wheels to the splicing of the whipthong, the minutest detail is given close attention and a clean exposition. A number of interesting charts and tables are introduced, showing the draught of vehicles under varying conditions, the angles at which a coach loaded or light will upset, together with quite a scientific treatise on centrifugal force as applied to a coach driven at various speeds around a curve.

All these points are interesting and instructive in the abstract, and should serve to make the intelligent coachman a closer observer of the numerous details which go to make up absolute proficiency in the "art." The chapter on driving is explicit, the various cuts indicating clearly the position of the hands, while the text conveys even to the tyro the object of the movements and the manner of their execution. While there may be a few points on which competent critics might take issue with Mr. Rogers, the work is singularly free from disagreeable egotism, and has an atmosphere of common sense about it which confirms its authority.

The "driving apparatus" shown in figure 154 is a very useful device for one who would be a coachman, or, being one, is out of practice. The scheme of weights attached to reins which run over pulleys enables one to train his fingers and arms, as well as to acquire the necessary skill in execution; for, however light-handed a coachman may be, the proper driving of four horses requires a strong arm and a "wrist of steel." The tired arm will invariably make a heavy hand, and in consequence an increased exertion of force is requisite. The systematic use of an apparatus such as Mr. Rogers has devised should therefore be of great service.

It is quite possible that the layman, who has not the love of coaching grafted in his heart, might criticise this work as being too serious in its treatment of a light subject, but it is certain that the craftsman will appreciate the enormous amount of labor and close attention which its production must have entailed. 'A Manual of Coaching' is in every sense well done. In addition to a complete system of indices, the introduction of a list of books which treat the subject of the horse either directly or indirectly is useful, as is also the translation of the various equipment and coaching expressions into French. The book is written purely for the man who loves coaching for itself, and is sure to take a prominent place in every coachman's library.

Surgery: A Treatise for Students and Practitioners. By Thomas Pickering Pick. Longmans. 8vo, pp. xix, 1,176.

The lectures on surgery which form the basis of this volume were delivered at St. George's Hospital, London, and are published chiefly for the use of beginners, though the author hopes the book will prove of value to practitioners. Mr. Pick's position is too well known for comment. His book bears witness to his thirty years of hospital experience. It should, despite obvious limitations, find favor with practitioners, but it is more particularly adapted to the time-pressed student, who is best served by concise tone and positive statement. The style is direct; occasional slipshod English not interfering with clear exposition. The topics are, as a rule, treated comprehensively, and inaccuracies are not common. The volume, in its unusual compactness, is especially adapted for easy reference. It is well indexed, illustrated, and arranged.

In section i., Inflammation is discussed entirely in the modern spirit. Section ii. deals with General Injuries. Careful mention is made of the details of surgical cleanliness, that factor which has so profoundly changed the aspect of surgery, almost in the last decade, by the immense enlargement of its scope and the furtherance of safety in operating. In section iii., devoted to General Diseases, cancer is, perhaps, of most interest; it is noteworthy that its cause is still unknown, that belief in its hereditary nature has materially lessened, and that, in England at least, it is apparently largely on the increase, although, on the other hand, it is stated that better diagnosis may in part account for this. Section iv. treats of Injuries and Diseases of Special Organs and Tissues, and we find that recent methods have much shortened the time formerly consumed in the care of certain fractures, and that Roentgen's discovery has been of the greatest value in this connection. Far less satisfactory has been the treatment of cerebral tumors, which, however, though its progress is not commensurate with that of localization of brain function, is a matter of infinite interest and perhaps of great possibilities. The therapy of nose-bleed as outlined in this book seems incomplete. The work is concluded by a chapter on deformities, and an appendix describing amputations.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bacon, E. F. A New French Course. American Book Co. $1.
Baker, Th. A Biographical Dictionary of Musicians. G. Schirmer.
Brown, Rev. J. Puritan Preaching in England: A Study of Past and Present. Scribners. $1.50.
Carpenter, F. G. South America. American Book Co. 60c.
Chalmers, Rev. T. The Christian and Civic Economy of Large Towns. Scribners. $1.25.
Claxton, Adelaide. Brainy Odds and Ends. London: The Author. 1s.
Fitchett, W. H. How England Saved Europe. Scribners. Vols. II. and III. $2 each.
Freytag, G. Die Journalisten. Boston: C. A. Koehler & Co.
Gollancz, I. The Works of Shakespeare. [The Larger Temple Shakespeare.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vols. 3 and 4. $1.50 each.
Hall, Rev. T. C. The Social Meaning of Modern Religious Movements in England. Scribners. $1.50.
Hovey, T. Taliesin: A Masque. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.
King, L. W. Babylonian Religion and Mythology. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Frowde.
Lapsley, G. T. The County Palatine of Durham: A Study in Constitutional History. [Harvard Historical Studies.] Longmans, Green, & Co. $2.
Lavisse, E. Album Historique. Tome III. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Lee, A. The Gentleman Pensioner. Appletons. $1.
Lee, Sidney, Dictionary of National Biography. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vol. XLI. $3.75.
Lindsey, W. At Start and Finish. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Littell, Mary V. From Pot-Closet to Palais Royal. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. 25c.
Lodge, T. Rosalind. Cassells. 10c.
MacDougal, D. T. The Nature and Work of Plants. Macmillan. 80c.
Markham, E. The Man with the Hoe. Doubleday & McClure. 50c.
Maspero, Prof. G. The Passing of the Empires. 850 B. C. to 330 B. C. Appletons. $7.50.
Norris, F. A Man's Woman. Doubleday & McClure. $1.50.
Paddock, Mrs. A. G. The Fate of Madame La Tour: A Tale of Great Salt Lake. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Prentiss, G. L. The Union Theological Seminary in the City of New York. Asbury Park, N. J.: M., W. & C. Pennypacker.
Pyle, Katherine. Prose and Verse for Children. American Book Co. 40c.
Quiller-Couch, A. T. Historical Tales from Shakespeare. Scribners. $1.50.
Roberts, Prof. C. G. D. By the Marshes of Minas. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Sedgwick, E. Thomas Paine [The Beacon Biographies]. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Seidel, H. Der Tausendmark Schein, und Andere Erzählungen. Boston: C. A. Koehler & Co.
Smith, Minna C. Mary Paget: A Romance of Bermuda. Macmillan. $1.50.
Spencer, H. The Principles of Biology. Appletons. Vol. II. $2.
Swift, L. Brook Farm. Macmillan. $1.25.
Tarbell, Ida M. The Life of Abraham Lincoln. 2 vols. Doubleday & McClure.
Torrence, F. R. The House of a Hundred Lights. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.
Trist, N. B. Whist: American Leads and Their History. Harpers. $1.
Ward, J. Pyramids and Progress: Sketches from Egypt. Eyre & Spottiswoode. $4.
Warner, F. The Nervous System of the Child. Macmillan. $1.
Whates, H. The Politician's Handbook: A Review and Digest of the State Papers, Diplomatic Correspondence, Reports of Royal Commissions, Select Committees, Treaties, Consular Reports, etc. Session 1900. London: Vacher & Sons.
Wilson, Mrs. L. L. W. Picture Study in Elementary Schools. 3 books. Macmillan. 35c. each.
Wilson, Mrs. L. L. W. Picture Study in Elementary Schools: A Manual for Teachers. 2 parts. Macmillan. 90c. each.
Wilson, L. L. W. Handbook of Domestic Science and Household Arts: For Use in Elementary Schools. Macmillan. $1.
Zile, E. S. van. With Sword and Crucifix. Harpers. $1.50.

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